MARCH 1964

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

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EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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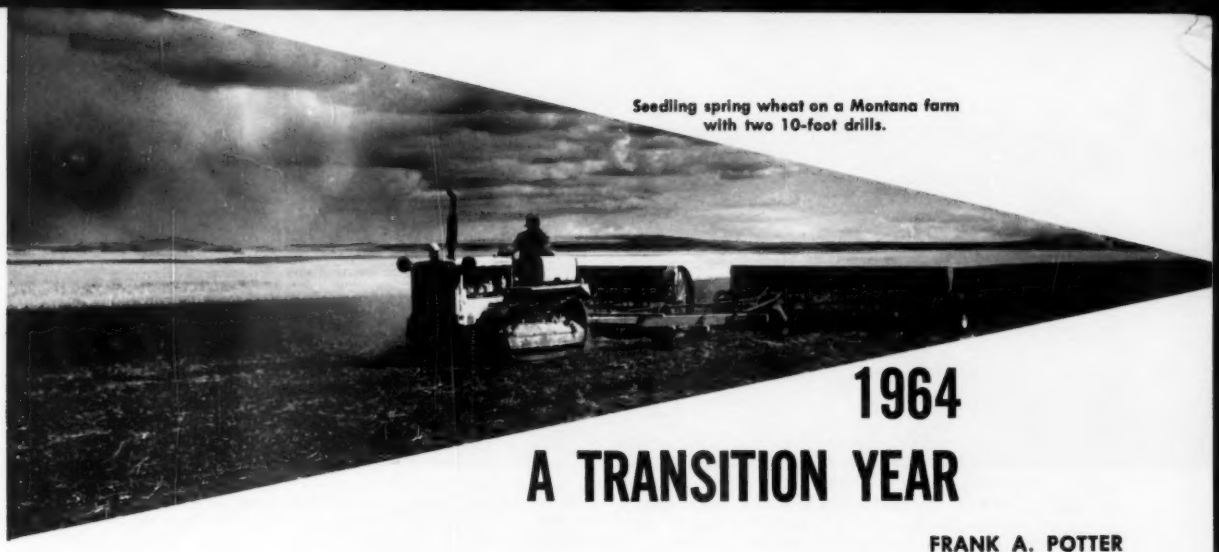

Seedling spring wheat on a Montana farm with two 10-foot drills.

1964 A TRANSITION YEAR

FRANK A. POTTER

More production. Fewer farms. More machines. Fewer jobs. Labor shortages. High unemployment. These are some of the elements that go to make service to agricultural labor a vital field of endeavor.

Continued expansion in the demand for farm products and record high exports are anticipated for 1964. With average growing conditions, farm output should remain high and could easily set another record. Crop production will probably be maintained at the 1963 level by higher production of grains, soybeans, and sugar crops, and livestock production is also likely to show a further increase. Such increases will probably be offset partially by lower production of cotton and vegetables. Continued increases in labor productivity will enable growers to reach their production goal with a progressively smaller labor force.

Most seriously affected by technological change is the employment outlook for seasonal hired labor in cotton activities. The national allotment for upland cotton is 16.2 million acres, about the same as in 1963. For extra-long staple cotton, the allotment is 112,500 acres, down from 149,800 acres for the 1963 crop. In spite of comparable acreage for upland cotton, labor requirements for cotton cultivation and harvest will be diminished by greater use of chemical weeding, cultivation and harvest machines, and other labor-saving devices.

Early indications are that vegetable production and employment will also be lower during this year. Supplies of canned vegetables on hand at the beginning of 1964 are almost as large as they were at the beginning of 1963, when growers found it expedient to cut acreages to keep output in line with market demand. Production of vegetables for the fresh market is also expected to be lower. The U.S. Department of Agriculture has recommended a 7 percent cut in acreage of winter vegetables and an 8 percent cut in spring-vegetable acreage. Employment levels will be reduced by these acreage cuts, and will be depressed further by increased mechanization, particularly in the harvest of potatoes, peas, and bush beans.

Reduced supplies, increased consumer demand, and relatively high prices are important elements in the outlook for fresh and processed fruits in 1964. Fruit-harvest employment is likely to remain below that of 1963 during the winter months, because of reduced production of early, midseason, and navel oranges, and then rise above corresponding 1963 levels for the remainder of the year. Spring should bring a larger crop of Valencia oranges, lemons and strawberries. No change is anticipated in 1964 strawberry acreage or employment.

In the summer, increases in production are anticipated in cherries, pears, prunes, apples, and peaches. Decreases from 1963's record production appear probable for plums and grapes.

From the standpoint of employment, 1964 will be a typical year, wearing the usual cloak of uncertainty. It will be influenced by weather and crop pestilence. At the year's end, production will be bountiful—or sparse—depending in good part on human effort—that of the farmer, the farmworker, and the Farm Labor Service representative.

Program Developments in 1963

In 1963, State farm labor service representatives continued to face squarely the maze of problems resulting from attempts to bring order to the movement of migratory workers. An experimental movement of workers was begun between Mississippi and selected Florida citrus growers; another between Louisiana and Michigan's sugar beet preharvest activity. Regional offices of the Bureau in Atlanta, Dallas, and Denver also initiated plans for a new movement of individually selected Mississippi and Louisiana workers for employment in 1964 preharvest work

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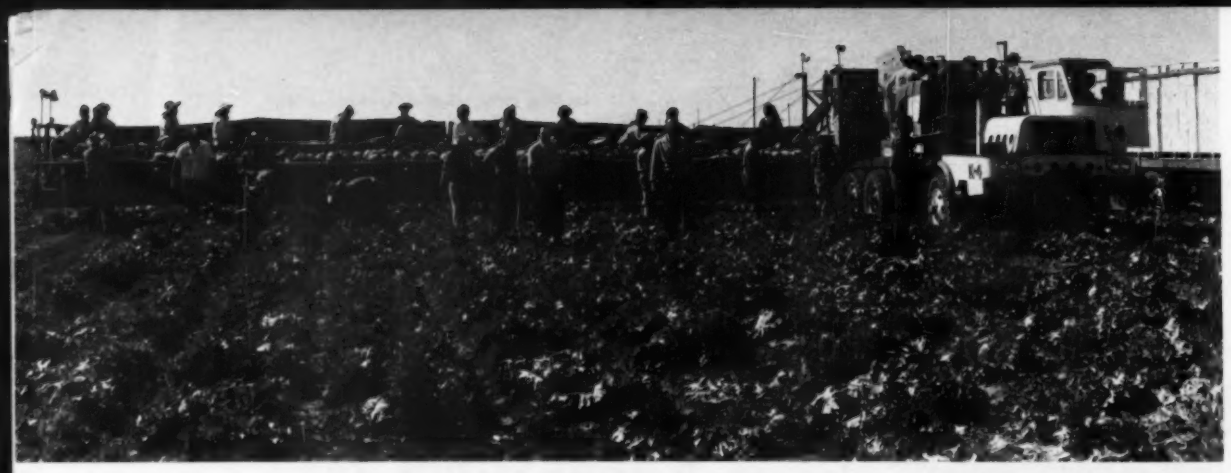

This field wrapper can handle 16 rows of lettuce simultaneously. With 14 wrapping stations, it can shrink-wrap six to eight heads per minute in polystyrene film and pack 210 to 250 cartons per hour. The 75-foot-long unit is portable and pivoted for use in the field. The crew includes 12 cutters, 14 wrappers, 3 packers, 1 loader, 1 stapler, 2 drivers, and 2 supervisors.

in Colorado, Montana, Utah, and Wyoming. Starting as relatively small movements, such ventures are indicators of the directions of future service. Orderly migratory movements, plus increased mechanization in agriculture, hopefully will bring to farm employment at least some of the stability normally associated with nonfarm employment.

In 1963, the Little Creek, Va., Information Station gave way to progress with the completion of an engineering marvel, the 17.6-mile Chesapeake Bay bridge-tunnel. Displacement of the Little Creek Ferry forced the shutdown of the information station. Now, in the wake of this change, something new has emerged. Workers previously served by the old information station soon may be served more adequately by rest stop facilities on their journey along the East Coast. This idea is currently being studied, and a tentative site in North Carolina has been explored. What is now a hope may become a reality before the end of the present year.

A number of work procedures were modified during 1963 in order to extend the ever present emphasis on quality referral to the farm employer and improved work opportunity for the farmworker. Adoption of the "one or more" procedure with regard to certification of need for permanent entry of aliens from Mexico under Public Law 414 corrected some abuses in the importation of foreign workers. Previously, the Department of Labor was involved only in cases where 25 or more aliens were to be allowed entry into the country for work with a single employer.

A new agreement pertaining to the referral of domestic sheepherders assures fuller utilization of the supply of such workers (see "Sheepherders" on p. 20).

An improved ES–369 (Agricultural Worker Schedule) was developed, which will promote the uniformity of information transmitted among States participating in the Annual Worker Plan. The Annual Worker Plan received an additional boost by North Carolina's entrance into the number of States presently manifesting all migrant crews contacted, thereby (among a multitude of other reasons) furnishing the labor demand area with a realistic figure on the number of workers in the crew. To ease the labor supply States' recruitment job, California has developed detailed attachments to the ES–560A (Clearance Order for Agriculutral Labor) which specify wage levels, work conditions, and perquisites.

Preliminary evidence indicates that agricultural wages continued their slow climb during 1963. A significant development was the issuance last year of "adverse effect" wage rate determinations for 11 East Coast States in which contract foreign workers other than Mexican nationals are employed. Rates ranged from 75 cents an hour in Virginia to $1 for all of the New England States. (The 95 cent Florida wage determination was suspended late in 1963 and is still under consideration.)

While no significant Federal legislation affecting agricultural workers was passed last year, six bills in the Senator Williams "package" were endorsed by the Senate (education, day-care, child labor, crew leader registration, National Advisory Council, sanitation) and may receive House consideration this year. Moreover, there were substantial changes in a number of State laws. North Carolina and Oklahoma adopted mandatory housing and sanitation standards; Illinois strengthened its labor camp laws; Colorado established a new minimum wage law, and Texas now covers agriculture under its child labor law; California passed measures related to farm housing and the maintenance of wage records by labor contractors.

There were significant accomplishments in farm training programs last year. Approval was granted for 33 jurisdictions to engage in 145 Manpower Development and Training Act and Area Redevelopment Act farm training projects made up of 4,803 trainees. Identifying employment fields where training is needed and developing projects to upgrade farmworker skills are now integral parts of the program of services offered by Farm Labor representatives to American farmers and farmworkers.

Reevaluation of Employer Services

To keep a program of services vital requires a constant awareness of change—of new and emerging problems—on the part of the service agency. Are Farm Labor Service representatives fully aware of the changing needs of farm employers? Of farmworkers? Of the total agricultural economy? A typical problem, and one which has not yet received the scrutiny it deserves, is the effect of the increase in farm size on employment service operation. This is true primarily because the steady decline in employment of seasonal farmworkers has obscured the growing need for recruitment services by the ever increasing number of large-scale farmers.

During 1963 the number of farm units dropped 3 percent (to 3.4 million), and the average farm grew 7 acres in size to 332 acres. United States farm output rose to a record high, 4 percent above a year earlier. However, man-months of employment of seasonal hired farm labor dropped to 8.1 million from the 8.5 million figure of a year earlier. Thus, this consolidation of small farm units into larger, generally more efficient units, plus mechanization and improved farm practices, has resulted in greater output with less seasonal labor.

The decline in farm labor is tied intimately to the trend toward larger farms. Between 1959 and 1962, all of the decline in hired labor occurred on farms with annual sales of $10,000 or less. On farms with greater sales, the decline in man-hours of hired labor per farm was more than offset by a 14 percent increase in the number of these larger farms.

While service to such growers has not been neglected in the past, changes on the agricultural scene require that the local office Farm Labor Service representative know his assigned area in the same manner a commercial salesman must know his product. The necessity for reevaluation of effort in this area may not be apparent in those parts of the country where farming is traditionally a large-scale venture. But other areas are undergoing this flux right now. Cotton farms in South Carolina's upper coastal plain furnished good examples. These farmers now are faced with the problem of continuing to operate on a marginal basis or consolidating their efforts. Just as they must be aware of the current "economic squeeze," so must the Farm Labor Service be in a position continually to reevaluate its program of services in order to be aware of change, and in order to be aware of the need for change.

Reevaluation of Worker Services

What impact will the impending termination of the Mexican supplemental farm labor program have on domestic agriculture? And what impact will it have on other supplemental foreign labor programs? At present these are unanswerable questions. But that there will be an impact is inevitable. How significant it will be in terms of "getting the crops in" will depend to some extent on a realistic evaluation *of* the labor needs of the American farmer *by* the American farmer right now. It will be determined in part by the reaction of domestic workers to the increased demand for their services and by willingness to participate in training programs designed to raise skill levels and, thereby, wage levels. It will be determined by the extent to which available unemployed and underemployed workers are utilized to meet impending labor shortages.

Last year some 209,000 foreign workers were contracted for seasonal employment in the United States. The decline in use of such workers has continued almost uninterruptedly since 1956. Hopefully, another significant drop will occur this year.

While the bulk of the Nation's crops are brought in by local labor, migrants and foreign workers are still needed to supplement this vast local work force in areas where hand labor needs remain high. Because of existing population imbalances (from the standpoint of agriculture's labor needs), it would be unrealistic to minimize the problems involved in assuring that sufficient labor will be available to a particular farmer at a particular time. This is an annual problem. But the problem unique to this year and next will be that of substituting domestic labor for foreign labor in certain areas of the Nation *without* drastically upsetting the present labor supply and demand arrangements in the rest of the Nation.

Increased competition for available labor will influence wage rates, and increased wage rates will inevitably influence migratory patterns. This problem must be met by sensible coordination of recruitment efforts by farm employers, either through pri-

One type of tomato harvester which cuts off the vine, shakes loose the tomatoes onto a rubber sorting belt, drops them into boxes, and then moves the boxes onto the truck which moves beside the machine.

Mechanized potato harvesting.

vate effort or through the already existing public employment service network. It will be met by the Farm Labor Service by establishing, where needed, new migratory movements, and by increased emphasis on the quality of referrals through interstate clearance channels and the Annual Worker Plan.

The other much-discussed unknown—whether the availability of domestic workers is sufficient to take up the slack in the agricultural work force brought about by termination of the Public Law 78 foreign worker programs—does not appear formidable in light of a continuing national unemployment rate of over 5.5 percent.

That unemployed and underemployed workers are available is unquestioned. In 1962, some 182,000 persons who did 25 or more days of farm wage work reported unemployment as their chief "activity" during the year. Since the number of these workers had been increasing at an average rate of 16,400 per year during the preceding decade, the chances are that over 200,000 such workers will be available for additional farmwork in 1964. Some 89,000 workers, who did 1 to 25 days of farm wage work in 1962, also reported unemployment as their chief activity.

Another underutilized source of supply is the low-income farmer and members of his family. Thousands of them give up their farms each year and seek other employment. Others take off-farm jobs during part of the year to supplement earnings from their own farms. Because their work experience has been primarily in agriculture, they usually are willing to accept farm wage work. There are an estimated 1.06 million underemployed workers on these small farms with annual sales of farm products of less than $1,200.

Unemployed residents of small towns and rural labor market areas are usually within easy travel distance of farming areas. Many of them have had some farm experience. They frequently are willing to take farm jobs if other employment opportunities are poor in their communities. In December 1963, the Bureau of Employment security classified 460 "very small areas" as areas of substantial and persistent unemployment. The average unemployment rate for these areas was 8.7 percent and the unemployed workers in the 460 areas numbered over 200,000.

Finding workers to fill jobs is not as critical a problem as that of convincing the farmer that he must spend time and money to train new workers, that he must make farm jobs attractive to the unemployed, and that he must plan his crop activities with his available labor supply in mind, increasing the length of employment where feasible in order to maintain a supply of local workers.

There also remain the problems of convincing large numbers of unemployed nonagricultural workers that farmwork is suitable work, and of convincing large numbers of underemployed agricultural workers that upgrading their skills will increase employment opportunities for both farm and nonfarm jobs.

Finding farmworkers to fill farm jobs is an integral part of the responsibility of the Farm Labor Service, as is finding jobs for the mass of underutilized workers mentioned earlier. To carry out that dual responsibility, it is essential to communicate to workers and employers an understanding of the realities of today's changing farm labor market.

That there will be increased competition for labor following the demise of supplemental foreign labor programs is inevitable. That there be close cooperation between the farm employer and the Farm Labor Service in efforts to delevop and maintain a semblance of order on the farm labor market is imperative.

Balancing Employer and Worker Services

CURTIS B. GILLIAM

Foresight and efficient operations used in recruiting qualified local and migrant farmworkers to fill heavy seasonal demands.

North Carolina has more people living on farms than any other State in the Nation. In 1963, the number of workers on farms. including family and hired workers, was 407,000. During any year, from 12,000 to 13,000 migrant workers are directed through clearance to North Carolina to harvest seasonal crops. During the peak season, another 32,000 farmworkers are involved in the Employment Service day-haul program, and nearly 2,000 intrastate workers travel the counties, as directed by the Employment Service, along with approximately 4,000 interstate workers who are brought into the State for the tobacco harvest only.

North Carolina's wide variety of crops requires a large number of manhours for production and harvest. Tobacco, the State's No. 1 farm commodity, is a particularly heavy labor-using crop.

The North Carolina Employment Security Commission has maintained a continuous farm placement program through its Employment Service Division since 1936. The plan has always been to follow a "middle-of-the-road" policy, dealing with grower and worker alike. The farm placement representatives, many of whom have been with the Commission for over 20 years, are keenly aware of changing conditions and of workers' and farmers' problems.

Although there has been a steady consolidation of small farms into larger units for economic reasons. North Carolina is not a State of large growers or of corporation farms and cooperatives, but is still considered a State of family farms.

Small growers receive service and attention just as the large operators do. In the highly concentrated agricultural production areas of the State, most of the growers rely on the farm placement service for most of their labor requirements. Likewise, farm laborers depend upon the Employment Service to place them in satisfactory jobs. There is no special preference given to either group. The emphasis of our farm placement program is on better utilization of labor through better selection of crew leaders, while impressing upon the farmer his responsibility in connection with the workers he hires. Many farmers have to be counseled in the proper methods of handling workers, just as crew leaders and workers have to be counseled in the proper accomplishment of the job. Any action to improve the lot of one group is beneficial to the other.

Placement of local labor is always most important. But because of peak seasonal harvest demands, intra- and interstate labor necessarily has to be employed. When workers are scheduled so that they have steady employment, they are most likely to be willing and satisfied workers.

One of six trailers used as a Farm Labor office to bring Farm Labor service near to the workers and growers. Four of these trailer offices are operated year-round.

Although we have several devices to improve labor efficiency, the most effective method is the "performance rating" system for crew leaders and workers. The rating is made jointly by the Farm Placement Representative and the employer. The crew leader and workers are rated on cooperativeness, dependability, and efficiency, and the crew leader is rated on his supervising ability. The crew leader and his workers are given ratings in one of four categories—"excellent," "good," "fair," and "poor." First devised for the selective recruitment of migrant workers, this system has become such an important tool for the regulation of the crews' work habits that it has been extended to organized intrastate and local crews.

Crew leaders are familiar with performance rating and realize that unproductive workers are detrimental to the crew's success and continued employment. Performance rating influences leaders to demand good crewmembers and to help them increase their work efficiency. Farm placement people are always eager to assist the crew leader in improving the standards and work habits of his crewmembers.

A system of registration is being tried with day-haul workers. Although this project is still experimental, it will be carried through until all day-haul workers have been registered. Approximately 45,000 additional interviews will be held with day-haul farmworkers during the next 2 or 3 years. Very little writing is necessary. On the front of a 3- by 5-inch registration card, the interviewer lists the worker's name, address, social security number, and other pertinent information. The reverse side of the card gives work history which can be recorded with checkmarks. These cards are kept current, coded, and filed alphabetically by code. When informa-

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In 1963, the first uniform housing law for migrants in North Carolina was passed.

tion is received that a registered worker is no longer available for farmwork, his card is removed from the file. During the interview, sufficient time is allowed for the farm placement representative to gain a fairly complete picture of the worker's history and pattern of employment. We have found that many workers have skills which are not being used—skills which are in demand in these days of increasing farm mechanization.

This ambitious registration project is having good results. Farm placement men have been brought closer to workers than ever before. "I didn't know there were so many available and qualified workers in my area," remarked one interviewer. Farmers favor this program because they know that workers who have been screened and registered are among the most desirable for farmwork.

Another attempt to maintain balance between employee and employer is the "manifest" program. Early in 1963, the regional and national offices of the Bureau of Employment Security requested North Carolina to carry out an experiment on manifesting migrant crews that had left the labor-supply States without benefit of such service. To undertake such a program during the peak of the harvest season was an arduous task, but there was very little objection since many obvious advantages accrued from this personal contact with migrant workers.

We manifested over 100 migrant crews. After the harvest seasons were completed, a survey among farm placement personnel to determine the usefulness of the manifest brought out many advantages and very few disadvantages. We believe, for instance, that the manifest contributed to making the Employment Service the most creditable authority on farm labor. The listing provided stronger ties between the Employment Service and the crew leaders and crewmembers. For the first time, this survey revealed the exact number of workers coming in from other States, which is invariably smaller than the crew leader contends. It indicated the true composition of the labor force and identified potential recruitment sources. It tended to improve the quality of labor and to decrease labor "pirating" from crew to crew.

In addition to providing a means to locate a worker quickly in case of emergency, the manifest added to the worker's and leader's sense of obligation and made the leader better acquainted with members of his crew. It provided applicant-holding States with a nucleus of names upon which to base future recruitment, and provided the order-holding State a basis for evaluating the quality of selection done by the supply State. Indicating to workers that the Employment Service is interested in each individual, the listing identified workers "picked up" en route as opposed to those selected and referred by the Employment Service. Finally, the manifest project improved employer relations by exemplifying our concern with quality selection.

The North Carolina agency has still another plan to improve labor utilization. For the 1964 tobacco harvest, we plan to ask growers if they will use more young workers. A large majority of workers in crop harvests during 1963 were under 21 years of age. More than 150,000 seasonal hired workers helped in the State's 1963 tobacco harvest; about 50 percent were young people. We hope that even more high school and college youth can be employed as field workers in the 1964 tobacco harvest. After we talk to farmers, we will contact some of the senior high schools and colleges to interest students in day-haul or live-in farm jobs.

In 1963, the North Carolina General Assembly, through the efforts of many State agencies, passed a uniform law covering the housing of migrant workers. The State has never before had a minimum housing law for this group of workers; standards have been met in the past through the cooperation of local growers, farm placement men, and health officials. But most growers will provide migrant housing to meet the legal standards because they know that the farmer who has good housing gets good workers.

In a situation which involves thousands of workers and millions of dollars of the State's economy, our objectives must be to maintain a balance between farm-labor supply and employer demand, and to make sure that services extended either directly or indirectly benefit both employer and worker. Both growers and workers like it that way.

New Date Harvester

One truck, two telescoping booms, and three men make up one of California's newest man-machine systems: A date harvester. One man drives the truck through the date grove, and the other two ride in buckets at the end of a pair of arm-like booms stretched out on either side of the truck. The date bunch is shaken and dates slide down hollow booms into the truck bed. The boom works on the same principle as a telephone repairman's truck.

Welding is one of the many skills farmhands are learning in a Federal program designed to train them to hold jobs on modern farms.

Iron shots are administered to a baby pig by an instructor as students crowd around to get a close look.

A tractor engine is taken apart, completely overhauled, adjusted, and put back together.

Pioneering for MDTA in Agriculture

FRED. H. SEAMAN

Farmhands with needed skills become shorter in supply as science and mechanization make increasing inroads in agriculture. Training farmworkers in wanted skills is resulting in well-paying, year-round jobs.

FOR many years, Missouri has been able to supply its needs for year-round farmhands in the northern part of the State by recruiting them in the supply areas of southern Missouri, and at the same time has been able to furnish workers for demand areas in contiguous States. However, for the last several years, mechanization has continued to widen the gap between the skills possessed by the State's available farmhands and the ever-increasing needs of the farmers for men who can operate more complex machinery and feed and care for livestock in accord with the latest practices developed by agricultural science. Realizing they are competing with industry for the type of men they need, farmers began to raise wages and offer other inducements, but skilled farmworkers were just not available. This situation has grown more serious each year.

When the Manpower Development and Training Act was passed, we recognized immediately the possibility of establishing a training course designed to raise the skills of the available supply of farmhands. Late in 1962, farm placement personnel met with the director of vocational agriculture education for the Missouri State Department of Education to prepare a proposal for an MDTA training course for general farmhands. The meeting, held in the Marshall, Mo., local office, was attended by farm placement representatives from several local offices who assisted in planning a curriculum designed to impart to trainees the skills which are in demand by the farmers of the State. The curriculum, which has remained virtually unchanged through three successive classes, includes: care and feeding of livestock; basic livestock sanitation; disease control and prevention; preparation of feeds; operation and maintenance of dairy equipment; seedbed preparation; use of two- and four-row mechanical equipment; fertilization and soil treatment; cultivation; spraying and irrigation; harvesting and storage of crops; care and operation of farm machinery and equipment; general farm maintenance: buildings; fencing; electric motors and small gasoline engines, including

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Painting a baler is a lesson in maintenance.

simple gas and arc welding; and farm safety.

The training is under the supervision of a vocational agriculture instructor and the superintendent of the Marshall public schools. The teaching is done by a vocational agriculture teacher who is also a farmer, and an assistant. Twenty-two men between the ages of 18 and 55 were selected by the local offices from all over the State for the first class which started February 4, 1963. Nineteen of these men completed the 14-week course on May 11. All but one were placed in farm jobs. The second class started in Marshall on May 20; all 20 trainees completed the course and 16 were placed in farm jobs. When the third class started on September 16, 1963, the length of the course was extended to 16 weeks. Of 17 trainees enrolled, 16 completed the course and 11 were placed in farm jobs. The fourth class started January 20, 1964, with 37 trainees and, at the end of February, 33 were still enrolled.

The Marshall training course includes both classroom work and field demonstration. Machinery and equipment are brought to the class by implement dealers in the area for servicing by the class under the guidance of instructors. Each student had a chance to take part in every exercise during the course. Arrangements are made with farmers in the area for the classes to participate in ground cultivation and related activities, feeding and vaccination of livestock, erection of various facilities on farms, and other activities included in the curriculum.

Farmers have shown an enthusiastic interest in this training. The May 1963, issue of the MISSOURI FARMER, official publication of the Missouri Farmers Association, published an article on the Marshall Training Center entitled "Farmhands With a Future."

"Hire Day" is held during the last week of each class in the Marshall local office, supervised by the local office manager and the farm placement representative. All offices are invited to send in job orders prior to the "Hire Day," and prospective farmer-employers are encouraged to go to Marshall on that day to interview the trainees. Most of the trainee graduates have been placed in well-paying year-round farm jobs, and many are now performing responsible work with complicated farm machinery or with registered livestock, or both.

The training and subsequent placement on modern farms in northern Missouri is resulting in higher living standards for these men and their families. As an example, a 24-year-old member of the first class completed the course on May 11, 1963. Before coming to Marshall, he had lived in a two-room old fashioned house in southeastern Missouri. His income for 1962 was approximately $900. Placed after training on a farm in Chariton County, he now lives in a five-room modern house. He is paid $50 per week, plus electricity, milk, meat, and fuel. In addition, his employer pays him a bonus of 25 cents for each pig farrowed and saved and 25 cents for each hog sold. His pig bonus amounts to over $1,000 per year.

Other classes for skills useful in agriculture have been held in Missouri with varying degrees of success. Two classes at Malden started on April 8, 1963, in an effort to teach migrant farmworkers skills which would offer them permanent employment and remove them from the "migrant stream." One was an 18-week class for general farmhand, and the other a 24-week class for combination welder. Of the 16 men who completed each class, 14 farmhands and 10 welders were placed in permanent employment. A dairy hand class to run 18 weeks started in Springfield on June 24, 1963, with 17 trainees. Our first followup showed that of the 10 men who completed the course, 4 were employed in training-related jobs. The others obtained employment in nontraining-related work. A second dairy hand class started in the St. Charles area to meet the needs of the St. Louis milk shed on February 17, 1964.

We have had problems and we have made mistakes. But we are learning—learning the do's and don'ts of this type of training program. We feel we are accomplishing the objectives of MDTA: To select the unemployed or underemployed, train them in usable skills, and place them in full-time employment. The Missouri Division of Employment Security is justifiably proud of its program, its trainees and instructors, and the farm employers. It is also proud of the cooperative efforts of the local ES offices and the State Department of Education which have made the program successful.

MANPOWER TRENDS

The USES, in cooperation with its affiliated State employment services, recently completed manpower surveys of three basic industries: Bituminous coal mining, tires and tubes, and meatpacking.

These industries, unrelated to each other and covering only a little more than 400,000 workers out of a total of 57,000,000 employed in nonfarm work, nevertheless point up a number of developments now affecting the economy and its most important resource, manpower. They reflect, in microcosm, what is happening to large segments of mining and manufacturing.

Employment in each of these industries has been dropping steadily over an extended period of time: (1) Bituminous coal employment, at 127,000 in 1963, has withered from 475,000 some 20 years ago; (2) tire and tube employment, in a Nation characterized as a "country on wheels," has nonetheless fallen 19 percent in 8 years to 96,000; and (3) despite rapidly rising population and per capita red meat consumption, employment in meatpacking declined by 45,000 in 7 years to fewer than 200,000.

Each of these industries has been severely affected by technological change. Average tons per man-day in coal mining doubled in the last decade. In tires and tubes, the employment decline of 16 percent between 1955 and 1962 was accompanied by an equivalent percentage increase in output. Productivity measurement in meatpacking is complex because of product mix and other factors but the problem is the same--increased output with considerably fewer workers.

The manpower impact of each of these employment changes is vastly different. Problems of each industry's work force are so diverse that no single remedial approach is adequate to the circumstance.

Coal mines are located in or near isolated communities, mostly in the Appalachian Region, where there are few alternative job opportunities. Training and retraining under MDTA hardly reach these long-term unemployed because applicants are far from training centers. Even if it were possible to bring classes to the displaced miners, there is no "reason-

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able expectation of employment" in these industrially deprived areas.

The bulk of employment in tire plants is located in large industrial areas. Yet the industry is one of the few remaining in America with an unusual concentration in one locality. Despite a shift in employment to the South, Akron still retains 40 percent of all workers on tires and tubes, and half of its manufacturing activity is devoted to this single purpose. A shift in economic climate or a basic development in technology could have a serious impact on the area. While other concentrations exist in Los Angeles and Philadelphia, the industry's role in these areas is small. Some major units of tire production are located in smaller areas with a history of substantial unemployment but, over the the last year or so, employment in these plants has fortuitously expanded.

Manpower developments in meatpacking present another set of problems. Displacement is caused both by technology and by industry shifts away from large cities. In many cases, it is proving more economical to move the packinghouses nearer to the animals than the animals to large city processing plants. The long-run effect has been the abandonment of the fabled Chicago stockyards and other plant closings in Fort Worth and Sioux City.

While displacement occurred, the closed plants have discharged an aging work force earning top hourly wages. Acceptance of jobs in other industries means quitting skills acquired over a lifetime and accepting hourly rates substantially below previous earnings. Ironically, several meatpacking plants moving into new areas are encountering skilled labor shortages, and some 160 workers have been or are being trained under MDTA to fill these jobs.

The experience of these three industries illustrates the fact that no single approach is the answer to the manpower challenge. In bituminous coal mining, training has limited effectiveness and may not be a practical approach without other massive remedial measures. An increase in aggregate demand has occurred in the tire and tube industry and it has not been sufficient even to maintain employment, let alone provide more job opportunities. For the meatpacking industry, it would appear that the universal harbinger of expanded markets, the population explosion, has not provided the impetus to employment expansion.

Relating MDTA and ARA Training to Agriculture

Photos by MISSOURI FARMER

A trainee is doing a service job on a tractor.

Under supervision of the farm owner (at right) two trainees learn to strip tobacco.

The first real interest in MDTA and ARA training for agriculture in Kentucky was brought about by agricultural extension people serving on local committees. Planning for all agricultural training projects has been done with the full cooperation of the county agricultural extension agents, the agricultural teachers in the local high schools, representatives of the Farmers Home Administration, and other leaders interested in agriculture.

Following the national pattern, the number of farms and farmers is decreasing each year in Kentucky, but, in some counties the demand for year-round farmhands is increasing. The farmer who is staying in business is expanding and hiring full-time help. He wants a man who is able to work, can read and follow instructions, and knows something about operation and maintenance of modern farm equipment. The Kentucky Division of Employment Service has attempted to set up training to meet these specific needs.

Two classes for training farmhands under MDTA have been completed—at Flemingsburg and Glasgow. The training was conducted by the vocational agriculture department in the county high school with the cooperation of selected farmers in the county. The classes and shopwork were conducted at the school, and trainees were sent out to the cooperating farms for work experience. All who completed this training are now employed.

The local offices found that more than half of the applicants for these farmhand classes could not read or write. For this reason classes have been set up to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic, in addition to the vocational instruction. The Flemingsburg class began with 20 members. We learned an important lesson in recruiting trainees for this class. The local press advertised that this project would teach reading and writing in addition to farmhand work. The same men who had wanted to get into a farmhand class became hesitant to enroll in this class because they did not want to admit that they needed training in the three R's. In the future the publicity will mention only "related" training.

An applicant is interviewed for admission into the farmhand training class.

Some counties in the foothills are completely rural. Farms are small, and the gross annual income per farm is about $2,500. Tobacco, the only cash crop on many of these farms, is limited to a very small acreage allotment (an average of less than 1 acre). Thousands of vacationers visit these counties during the summer months. Fruit and vegetable stands along the main highways sell produce trucked in from other States. We believe that with some training in production of fruits and vegetables, the operators of the small farms in this area can supply the local markets and add 30 to 40 percent to their incomes.

One training project was conducted under ARA for peach growing in Pulaski County. This training resulted in the setting out of 342 peach trees in 1963. A local committee survey indicates that peaches from 250 acres can be sold in this part of the State. The farmers who made up this class were selected by the local employment service with the help of the county agricultural extension agent, the vocational agriculture teachers in the county high school, the local Farmers Home Administration representative, and the production credit manager. The county agent and the vocational agricultural teachers will continue work-

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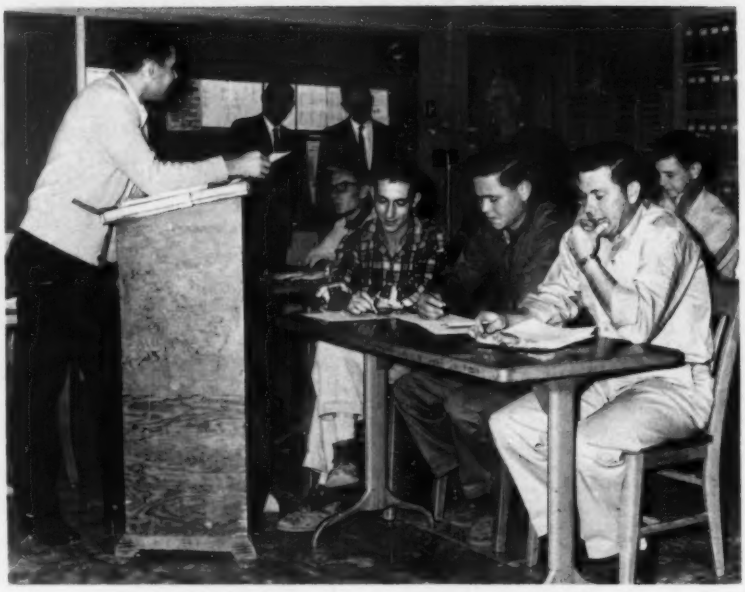
ing with these farmers for 2 more years in a special effort to make this project achieve its goal. This undertaking is an excellent example of cooperation of several agencies to solve economic and employment problems in a community.

Classes are now being planned to provide a similar type of training under MDTA in this same area. The selection of trainees for these classes will be done with the help of the same farm agencies involved in the ARA project. The training will be expanded to include improved farm management and marketing along with production of new cash crops that can be sold in the local area. The same agencies will participate in the followup activity. The local committee believes that the net income per farm can be increased by at least $1,000 per year.

We are now developing training classes in the care of shrubs, flowers, lawns, walkways, and the like. We believe there are still many other areas related to agriculture where training is needed in Kentucky.

A survey conducted in cooperation with the forestry department at the University of Kentucky found a need for trained men to work as forester aides. On September 2, 1963, a training program began at the University Wood Utilization Center at Quicksand, Ky. This class, with 26 men still in training, is scheduled for completion in May. Four different firms have offered to hire the entire class if the men will accept employment at the pay they can offer. We believe that this training will not only provide employment for these trainees, but also will enable firms to expand and employ additional people. We now have approval to train 84 additional aides, and the University hopes to start another class in April.



Charles Hill, Kentucky Farm Placement Supervisor, and Ralph Strong, Regional Farm Placement Director, observe a training class for farmworkers at the Fleming County, Ky., High School.

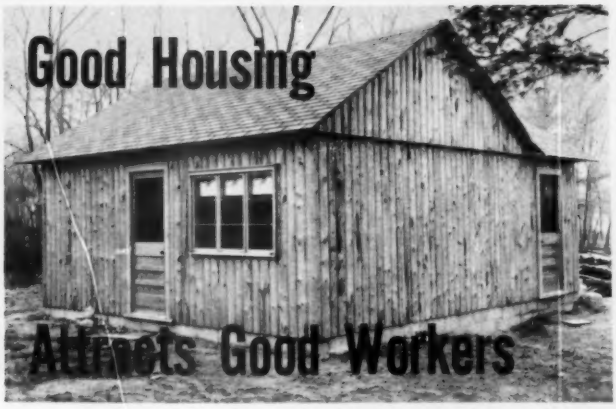
One problem in training for farm jobs is to get the trainees to complete the training. There is a tendency for the men to drop out to take seasonal jobs. They need the extra money and often are unable to realize that completion of training will pay off in the long run. Some have dropped out to accept employment in related jobs. One man got a job as a welder as a result of welding learned in the farm shop. Two men got jobs with a milk company as a result of farmhand training.

We have found that all training in agricultural objectives needs the cooperative efforts of all interested agencies in the community. We have had excellent support from the local advisory committees and other agencies.

—Sam Evans, *Community Employment Program Supervisor, Kentucky Division of Employment Service.*

Unemployed Farmworkers of 1963

Unemployment rates for agricultural wage and salary workers in 1963 were, as usual, highest during the winter months. At the February peak, there were about 275,000 farmworkers unemployed, about 18.7 percent of all agricultural wage and salary workers, compared to 5.6 percent of all workers. As farm jobs became available during the summer months, their unemployment rates declined. The drop from winter to summer levels is probably exaggerated, however. In the summer, when unemployed migratory workers are on the road looking for work, they may not be counted under the household reporting system used to obtain the unemployment estimates. Consequently, the actual level of unemployment during the season may be higher than indicated by the survey reports. In every month except October, the proportion of unemployed farmworkers was higher than that of other workers. As in every year on record, the 1963 annual average unemployment rate for farmworkers was higher than for all workers: 8.9 percent compared with 5.7 percent. The gap was much wider in 1963 than in 1962, when the rates were 7.3 for farmworkers as against 5.6 for all workers.



Housing conditions of migrant agricultural workers have frequently been publicized during the last decade, which has seen a steady growth of specialized crop harvesting with migrating crews.

The emphasis given to this social problem nearly always has been of an adverse nature with little if any mention of the efforts of public authorities, social and community groups, and well-intentioned employers to upgrade and improve the lot of the migrant worker and his family. On the other hand, this unfavorable publicity is responsible for the reform movement of recent years, which has culminated in the passage of legislation by many States aimed at correcting the poor housing often made available to this segment of the worker population.

Over the years, many employers have awakened to the significance of this problem in terms of their own economic interest. They have learned that good housing makes for satisfied and possibly more productive workers and, over the longer term, to lowered labor costs. Food processors who use large numbers of migrant workers have also discovered that their labor costs can be greatly reduced if labor turnover can be minimized. Modern, clean living quarters with some recreational opportunities attract workers to return to the same employer year after year to harvest the crops, thus assuring the chosen employer of a more dependable source of manpower.

Much of the early housing constructed for migrant workers did not provide facilities for sanitation and health protection because there were no regulations governing the construction of such housing. In Illinois, employers who pioneered in this movement for better housing hoped that their dwellings would help to set the standards for any governmental regulation that might be forthcoming.

These industry leaders contributed much to the discussions preceding enactment of the Illinois law and were instrumental in securing the inclusion of a deferred enforcement provision which permitted employers a 3-year period to bring their existing structures into full compliance with the law.

The Illinois State Employment Service, responsible for farm placement operations for Illinois processors, growers, and packers, became interested in housing as part of the hiring contract for migratory workers. Early in the 1950's, this agency inaugurated an informational program on housing by distributing to employers using migrant workers information pertaining to the housing regulations in effect in other States. These releases created considerable interest and brought many inquiries from employers who sought to inspect and learn more about improved housing.

As interest grew, the State employment service, the Illinois Canners Association, the Illinois Agricultural Association, the Truck Gardners Association, the Horticultural Association, and the State Department of Public Health developed a migrant housing code which was to be carried out on a voluntary basis for 2 years. At the end of that time, the code was to be evaluated and from the findings a State law was to be written and introduced in the State legislature.

In August 1961, the Illinois migrant labor camp law was enacted, requiring annual inspection and licensing of the State's migrant labor camps. To ease the burden on employers who had to modernize their structures to meet the new legal standards, compliance was spread over a 3-year period.

Enforcement of the new law met with resistance at the outset from a number of small growers who indicated that their operations would not warrant the modernizing or replacement costs for housing required by the new law. The protests of these small operators resulted in the adoption of amendments to the law in April 1963. Truck gardeners, who as a rule employ fewer than 10 workers in fielding their crops, were influential in securing passage of an amendment which changed the definition of a migrant labor camp from 5 workers to 10 workers. Strawberry

Individual housing units are sometimes provided for migrant families.

Laws in other States assure good housing for migrants such as that shown here.

growers likewise made their problems known, explaining that they had a very short season which did not warrant investment in housing. These growers succeeded in eliminating the requirement of a license for any labor camp which operated for less than 21 days in a season. However, all other regulations in effect for labor camps must be met by all farm employers of migratory workers.

As finally passed, the amended law contains provisions for adequate campsites, shelters, water supply, toilet and bathing facilities, mess halls, garbage disposal, and similar matters. Sections authorizing inspection by the State Department of Public Health and providing for the establishment of a labor camp advisory committee are also included. The Employment Service serves as technical consultant to the Department of Public Health.

To assure full cooperation in the workings of the migrant labor camp law, the Illinois Director of Labor has instructed the Employment Service to accept job orders from only those agricultural employers who have been licensed by the State Department of Public Health. Farm employers throughout the State and the Department of Public Health have been informed of this directive. Local farm placement representatives, in their day-to-day contacts with agricultural employers, have explained the agency's policy and it has been widely accepted. Employers not meeting the terms of the law have not been served.

In carrying out its responsibilities under the law and the directive, the Employment Service indicates on each employer's order whether the housing has passed inspection and whether a license has been obtained or applied for. The State Department of Public Health keeps the chief of farm placement informed of all correspondence and transactions pertaining to the labor camps and the licensing status of each. This information is checked prior to the submission of a job order for recruitment.

Migrant housing in the State has improved greatly, new buildings have been erected, and many of the former structures have been torn down and replaced. However, a few employers are continuing their old substandard housing in violation of the law. It is expected that these inferior accommodations will pass from the scene under the pressure for progress and human betterment. Food processors are beginning to exert pressure for better housing by insisting that farmers who are awarded contracts must meet or promise to meet all State migrant labor camp law requirements and obtain a license for their worker housing. A minority of farmers oppose the housing law, but it is doubtful that as a group they have sufficient strength to change the law or have it repealed.

During the 1963 agricultural season, 155 housing licenses were issued by the Department of Public Health. More and more employers are complying with the law, and the idea of housing improvements for migrant workers is increasingly accepted as beneficial to both growers and workers.

—Loran M. Agler, *Chief, Farm Placement and Clearance, Illinois State Employment Service.*

Job Tenure of Farmworkers

Only domestic service workers have less stability of employment than hired farmworkers. In January 1963—when seasonal workers were as usual only a small part of the hired farmwork force—the median time for males on their current jobs was 1.4 years and for females less than a year. Thirty-six percent of the men and 44 percent of the women had been at their farm jobs 6 months or less. Median time on the job for all male nonagricultural wage and salary workers was 5.1 years.

Among the self-employed, however, a majority of the males had operated their farms since 1945, whereas only about a quarter of the males in nonagricultural industries had held the same job that length of time. Half the farm women (self-employed and unpaid family workers) and only a quarter of these groups of women in nonfarm industries had been at the same job since 1950.

Mississippi—Migrant Supply

RALPH W. ALEWINE, JR.

The Farm Placement Representative checks crew members aboard a bus from a manifest list.

Successful scheduling of migrant workers under Annual Worker Plan. Intelligent planning is key to proper utilization of migrant worker force.

What happens to the agricultural labor force in the transition from a sharecrop system to a highly mechanized farming enterprise? How can an adequate labor supply be retained for peak seasonal demands during this transition?

These were questions faced by the Mississippi Employment Security Commission during the early 1950's when farm tenants were being displaced. One step taken was to develop agricultural work opportunities in other States during periods of low-labor demand on the assumption that continuity of employment would help to retain the labor force.

The demand for seasonal workers in Mississippi occurs principally in cotton chopping and cotton picking, from early May to mid-November. Since labor needs drop sharply between the spring and fall peaks (see chart), scheduling workers under the Annual Worker Plan during the off seasons has been very successful in helping to preserve the work force.

Ralph W. Alewine, Jr., is *Chief, Farm Placement, Mississippi Employment Security Commission.*

The key to proper utilization of this work force is *intelligent planning.* The first step taken by the local office is the preparation of a plan of action for serving agricultural employers and workers for a year. The farm placement representative and local office manager consider agricultural labor supply and demand in terms of the economic outlook for farm placement activity during the year and specific plans are outlined for recruiting and referring workers. These plans must be flexible, so that mid-year revisions may be made when necessary.

The average Mississippi worker now participating in the Annual Worker Plan, more frequently than not, will return home upon completion of a crop season. Of course, some join other crews which follow the usual migratory stream. Because of compressed seasonal demands in this State, losses to the migratory stream have increased in the past 2 years.

The local office plan of action provides for the preparation of an agricultural worker schedule for each crew, family, or group expected to be available during the calendar year. This early planning makes it possible for agency representatives to discuss and commit the migrant supply to demand States at the National Farm Placement Conference, which is usually held early in the year.

Planning to meet seasonal demands for cotton-chopping and cotton-picking is done at the two preseason planning conferences. At these State meetings, representatives from labor supply and labor demand offices provide data on labor needed to meet the demands of the crop activity; for example, acreage for cotton, yield in bales, labor-saving techniques expected, available on-farm labor, and total off-farm supply. When the labor supply is fairly well established to meet the demands of the season, commitments are made for out-of-State movements under the Annual Worker Plan. The preseason conference also provides a means of disseminating information to supply offices on out-of-State work opportunities.

Crew leader meetings follow the preseason conferences. Local and area needs for the coming crop season are discussed. Specific plans are formulated for maximum worker utilization, including procedures for routing crews from "rained-out" areas to other demand areas. Annual Worker Plan commitments are then confirmed. Information is given concerning needs and conditions of agricultural employment in other States, including details on new crop activities in new areas.

The farm placement representative plays an important part in the development of strong and dependable

crew or group leaders. Although no formal training is given, the frequent advice, counsel, and encouragement of the FPR help to improve, slowly though it may seem, the attitudes of the leaders. Some demand States furnish appraisal sheets concerning the performance of a group leader during the crop season. The FPR uses this information in attempting to correct inadequacies.

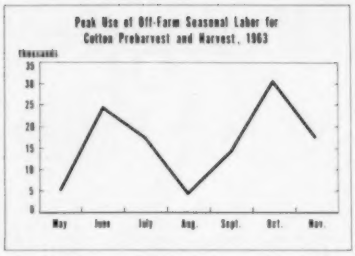
The FPR is constantly aware that new crew leaders must be developed. Replacements may be necessary because of death, out-migration, or poor performance. Also, the potentials of a supply area may be limited because of a lack of crew leaders.

New crew leaders usually evolve out of day-haul movements. An individual proves himself by beginning with a small group, with movement first by car and then by pickup truck. Local employers report to the FPR that the group leader is reliable and that he has the potential to develop into a good crew leader. As the crew leader proves himself, the FPR discusses with him possible out-of-area movements.

Finally, the day arrives when a clearance order is received for the new crew leader. The FPR discusses each minute detail of the order and clearly outlines the leader's responsibilities in fulfilling the employer's request. The FPR stresses that each worker in the prospective crew must be screened by the local office—well in advance of the day of movement. This is a cardinal rule in Mississippi on all out-of-area movements. The FPR takes special care to see that at least a nucleus of experienced workers is included in the crew.

The FPR follows the recruitment progress of the group under the new crew leader. If recruitment lags, special recruitment techniques—handbills, radio spots, loudspeakers, and just plain door-knocking—are employed. On the day of departure, the FPR goes over the order again and urges the crew leader to get in touch immediately with the demand State FPR if anything goes wrong.

Weather often creates emergency conditions which necessitate immediate action. In November 1963, freak winds and rain beat about 40 percent of the Louisiana sugarcane to the ground. Machines, counted on to harvest the crop, stood useless nearby. The Louisiana agency sent out an urgent call for workers. All south Mississippi local offices were alerted immediately. The FPR's dropped everything else and began contacting every crew leader. Because of the emergency situation, workers were directed to the demand area without benefit of orders. The exact number of workers directed from this State is not known, but a sizable portion of the 1,500 emergency workers came from Mississippi.



Under the Annual Worker Plan, Mississippi workers now have varied experience in different crop activities. They can no longer be identified as "cotton-patch workers." For example, in 1963, some 6,560 workers were directed to crop activities in 18 different States where they worked in beans, tomatoes, potatoes, cotton, peaches, tobacco, strawberries, peas, and cherries in States from Florida to Massachusetts on the eastern seaboard and from the Rio Grande Valley in Texas to Wisconsin and Michigan. Mississippi also had a small movement to California last year, a movement which gives every indication of expanding in the future.

It has been conservatively estimated that Mississippi workers earn about $2½ million each year under the Annual Worker Plan—about the equivalent of a year-round industrial plant continuously employing 1,000 people. In a State conscious of industrial development needs, it is no wonder that the program has achieved wide acceptance.

Success in routing groups under the Annual Worker Plan often rests with the FPR. What are the qualities he needs to perform this important phase of the employment service program?

First, the FPR must know his local office area. He must anticipate the needs of both the employers and the applicants he serves. He must be dedicated—farm placement work is not easy. He must have perseverance and not be easily discouraged. He must recognize that disappointments are bound to occur, but he must also be resourceful, able to convert a catastrophic situation into the opportunity for a commendable performance. In short, the FPR is the man who gets the job done.

The employer bus driver looks on as the FPR gives instructions to individually recruited workers for the New York vegetable harvest.

Hope—for the Migrant

The Texas family had been traveling since early morning, and the sun had almost completed its arc downward into the horizon. The family members were en route from their home in Brownsville, Tex., for work in the Michigan sugarbeet and fruit crops. Their second day of travel had brought them to Texarkana on the Texas-Arkansas border, some 650 miles from home, in one of the main migrant streams, heading north on U.S. Highway 67. They were interested most in the sign that proclaimed, "Hope Information Center and Rest Stop—30 Miles Ahead."

Forty minutes later with darkness rapidly falling, they were 1 mile west of Hope, Ark. Ahead they saw welcoming mercury vapor lights on the left side of the highway bidding them enter for a much needed rest stop. They had reached Hope, the city aptly named and well chosen for the location of Arkansas' Farm Labor Information Station.

A migrant family en route home from the northern harvests.

This family is typical of the thousands of migrants who visited the Arkansas Farm Labor Information Center in 1963. The center, which serves only domestic migrants, is open 7 days a week, 24 hours a day, from March 1 to December 1. Constructed in 1958, it is an integral part of the Arkansas farm placement program for migratory workers and an important link in the Annual Worker Plan. All workers not previously registered by their home State are registered when they enter the grounds. The registration form is then sent to the worker's home State and a copy to the next State in which he will work. In addition, uncommitted workers looking for employment are sent to the Hope local office of the Arkansas Employment Security Division for referral on local job openings, or are referred through clearance procedures to other areas needing seasonal labor.

This free information center covers a 2-acre, fenced plot with abundant flowers and shrubs which make it more attractive to the travel-weary migrants. It offers showers, restrooms, washrooms, outdoor grills for cooking, picnic tables, and garbage disposals. There is sheltered parking for cars and trucks in addition to outdoor parking areas.

The center is operated by a veteran employment service employee, who, with his wife, lives at the center in an agency-owned mobile home.

The operator has much available information for the migrants concerning crops, wages, working conditions, housing, timing of harvests, and general information of interest. He advises the migrants of the best routes to their destinations and suggests that they stop next at the information center at Sikeston, Mo., for further services, as needed.

Since 1959, some 50,500 migrants have passed through the gates at the Hope center seeking service. From a 1959 figure of 1,119, traffic has increased to a peak of 17,800 in 1963. During peak periods, some migrants have had to be turned away because there was no space left on the crowded grounds. Because of the increasing popularity of the center and the need for larger accommodations, plans for expansion are being considered.

In 1963, migrants from 19 different States stopped at the Hope center. They came singly or in groups that varied in size up to the 177 members of an organized migratory crew. However, the average migratory family consists of eight persons.

Many growers and officials from other agencies have stopped by to observe the center's operations and most leave with a favorable comment for the center and its operator. This Arkansas information center has become part of the migratory pattern as it stands ready to offer "hope for the migrant."

—A. B. Martin *and* George O. Ropp, *Arkansas Employment Security Division.*

Migrants for an Island Grape Harvest

North Bass Island, or the Isle of St. George, with only 740 acres, is located in Lake Erie about 17 miles from Port Clinton, Ohio, and within a mile of the International Boundary between Canada and the United States. The population consists of eight families whose sole source of income is work in a 350-acre vineyard, the world's largest Catawba grape planting. The island has a church and a school but no stores.

In 1963, a grape expert was placed in charge of the vineyard. Through his know-how, grape production was substantially increased, and the 1963 harvest was 20 percent larger than any previous crop. This large crop created a shortage of pickers, and the Ohio State Employment Service was asked for assistance.

The local farm placement representative for Ottawa County had been attempting to place migrant laborers in this vineyard for 5 years. He discussed the use of migrant labor with the vineyard manager and took him on a tour of the county to see how migrants worked and the type of living quarters required for them. They also visited the local health department to ascertain its requirements in connection with new housing which would have to be built on the island.

Transportation to the island is by boat or by an airline,

The company built new housing on the island for the migrants.

The children of the migrants attended the island school.

The migrants were eager to ride the boat or plane—the only means of transportation to the island.

using trimotor planes, which schedules two daily flights. Flying to the island is likely to be a rough experience, because the planes carry all sorts of freight—lumber, barrels of oil, mail bags, caskets, or virtually anything else that can be loaded aboard.

After the decision was made to employ migrant workers, problems arose in connection with transportation, schooling, medical care, and religious facilities. There also were the questions of whether native islanders would accept and work with the migrants who were cutting in on their only source of income, and whether migrants would accept work that might isolate them from the mainland for weeks.

The company built and furnished six new housing units and converted a fishing boat into a ferryboat to take the families to the mainland once a week without charge for shopping.

Anticipating the thrill of boat or plane transportation to the island and the prospect of good wages, migrants eagerly sought the employment, and there soon were more applicants than could be placed in the vineyard.

The harvest lasted from September 3 to October 19. During that time, 825 tons of grapes were picked—20 percent more than in any previous year—and in 2 weeks less time than formerly. Picking costs were lowered about $5 per ton. This reduction almost covered the extra expense involved in using migrant labor. Wages for the workers ranged from $12 to $22 per day, averaging about $16.

The migrant workers and the residents of the island easily adjusted to each other and enjoyed a very friendly relationship. Schooling for the children of the transient employees was ably handled by the modern one-room school on the island. At the close of the 6-week harvest season, everyone agreed that the program had operated smoothly, efficiently, and pleasantly and was in all respects a complete success.

—KEITH KIMBALL, *vineyard manager, and* HOWARD KAUBLE, *farm placement representative, Ottawa County, Ohio.*

Farm Wage Trends

Farm wages are highest and are rising fastest in the highly industrialized Pacific Coast and New England regions, where farm and nonfarm employers compete for workers. Although farmworkers' earnings rose between 1962 and 1963, the spread between farm and nonfarm pay continues to widen. In 1963, the average hourly rate (without room or board) for farmworkers was $1.05, compared to $2.46 average hourly earnings of production workers in manufacturing. While cash wage rates for farm hired labor are expected to be higher in 1964, the number of farmworkers hired is likely to be less, so that farmers' total expenditures for labor probably will remain about the same as in 1963.

Source: *The Farm Cost Situation*, November 1963, and *Farm Labor*, January 1964, U.S. Department of Agriculture.

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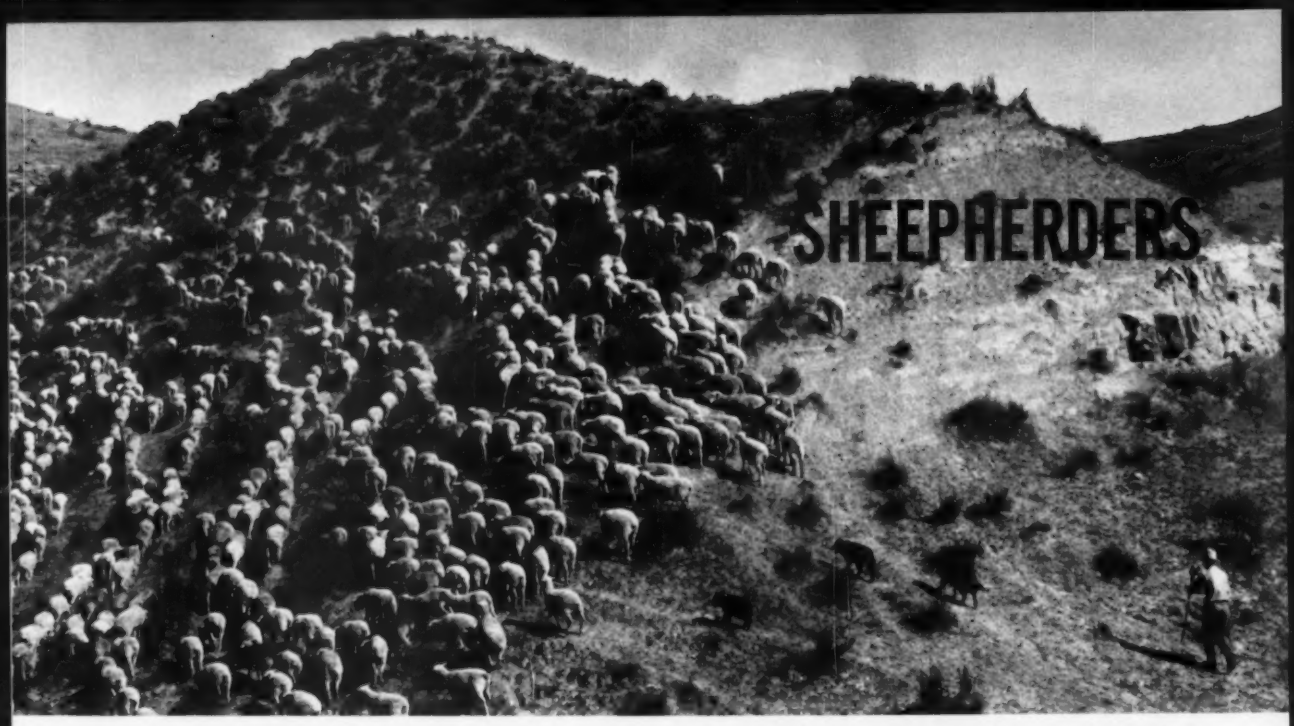


SHEEPHERDERS

There are over 1,900 employment service local offices in this country. But one local office located in Las Vegas, N. Mex., serving an area which covers a 200-mile radius, is the trading area for the only known labor pool of sheepherders in the 50 States.

For the past several years, the Las Vegas office has referred several hundred lambers and herders to nine Western States. Wyoming has been the largest user of such workers. Usually the herders are hired for periods of from 3 to 8 months, but a number are hired on a year-round basis. Approximately 200 sheepherders are hired from northern New Mexico annually.

Since this office cannot supply enough herders for 2 million sheep in the western part of the country, sheepgrowers usually import several hundred Basque herders to this country annually. Regulations require that no herder may be imported if a domestic worker is available. Consequently, the Las Vegas office usually is swamped with orders from various States requesting domestic herders.

In October 1963, an unusual meeting among Department of Labor officials, members of the Western Range Association, and employment security officials from New Mexico was held at the Las Vegas office to recruit year-round sheepherders for sheepgrowers in the Western States. In all, 19 sheepherders were interviewed and 12 were hired.

In the course of the meeting, agreement was reached on a recruitment program which will assure that all available domestic sheepherders are exposed to jobs in the areas importing Basques. The agreement provides that the Western Range Association will place open orders for five qualified, year-round domestic sheepherders in each of the States in which the Association operates. These orders will have no termination date. The ES agency in the order-holding State will be asked to clear the orders to the New Mexico State Employment Service. Delegated hiring authority for the manager of the Las Vegas local office will accompany the orders.

The Association will keep the Employment Service informed of all transfers of foreign workers. In turn, the Bureau of Employment Security will recognize the Association as the employer in all matters concerning these workers. As such, the Association is authorized to transfer foreign herders among users without prior approval

(*Continued on page 22*)

Sheepherding is a lonely life.

How to Get and Keep a Good Farmhand

FRED R. FISHER

Relationship between farmhand and employer is a two-way street. Farmhand's character as important as experience and skills.

The 1963 version of "how to keep 'em down on the farm" includes "how to get 'em." This was the theme of a farm labor seminar sponsored by the farm placement section of the Des Moines, Iowa, local office on February 11, 1963.

For many years, the Farm Labor Clinic held during the late winter and early spring gave our offices an opportunity to keep in touch with the farmers and farmhands, to recognize the changes in worker requirements and wages, and to participate in much of the hiring. March 1 may still be the moving date on rented farms, but it certainly is no longer the traditional hiring date. With most farmhands now employed on a 12-month year, hiring does not occur on a seasonal basis but as replacements are needed or as new jobs develop. This requires a new approach and perhaps a better understanding of the problems. The problem areas seemed to be:

What does the employer expect in a farmhand?

What can the employer offer to attract the good farmhand?

How can the employer keep the good farmhand?

Where can such a farmhand be found?

What can the State employment service do about it?

The local office farm placement representative asked these questions of some of his employers and got as many answers as there are ways to pose the questions. Since many of the area's key employers are also businessmen or government officials in Des Moines, and several are on the chamber of commerce committee which sponsors the annual National Farm Institute, they agreed to cosponsor an open forum type meeting to discuss these questions. Although weather conditions were not favorable, more than 70 farmers, farmworkers, educators, and employment service, welfare, and agricultural organization representatives attended. Local newspaper, radio, and TV farm editors also participated.

A thorough understanding of what is offered by the farmer and expected from the farmworker helps in making a placement satisfactory to both.

Frankly, we did not expect to resolve these questions in the short time allotted to each panel. We were surprised, however, at the degree of self-appraisal and even self-criticism expressed by the employers on the panels and in the audience. The following represents a summary of the comments rather than conclusions.

Qualities of the Good Farmhand

In outlining the qualities sought in a good farmhand, many "ideal" conditions were expressed. No one of these requirements seemed unrealistic by itself, but as one of the farmers expressed it, "99.9 percent of the people described are farming for themselves or are already employed in responsible positions in industry. This leaves only one-tenth of 1 percent for us to hire."

Honesty, integrity, good character, ambition, pride, initiative, and good community standing were all listed as worker requirements, along with experience. Experience was rated more on quality than on quantity. Age did not seem to be a significant hiring requirement. Several farmers agreed that impending military service should not be a bar to hiring. Others pointed out that, with industry competing for the younger man, they had better luck with older workers. They thought that they were more likely to find the "judgment" qualities they sought in workers over 45 years of age. Several agreed there can be a considerable difference of opinion in "ability to do the job" and to "do it my way," with the employer more often at fault than the worker.

Attracting and Keeping Good Farmhands

The discussions on "what to offer" and "how to keep" good workers were closely related. The local Extension director started this discus-

Fred R. Fisher is Farm Placement Supervisor in the Iowa Employment Security Commission.

sion with a blackboard chart of a wage study by Ohio University that had been published by a national farm magazine. This chart indicated that a monthly cash wage of $300, plus housing and extras valued at an equivalent of $137.50 per month was required to meet the competition in an industrial metropolitan area such as Des Moines. A show of hands indicated that few employers present were matching or exceeding that figure, although most agreed they could not expect to hire the previously described farmhand unless they did offer such wages. The advantage of cash wages versus extras seems to be a matter of personal opinion. Better arrangements seem to result when the employer and the worker discuss in advance the gross value of the salary and determine which extras should be provided or be paid for in the cash equivalent.

Some other suggestions by the employers were:

1. Provide modern housing in good repair, with arrangements for periodic redecoration.
2. Work out a schedule of normal hours for the base salary, with hourly compensation for required overtime.
3. Offer bonus and/or production incentive arrangements, and make an annual review of wages and extras.
4. Arrange for paid vacations, allow weekdays off for personal reasons when workload permits, and have a definite schedule or understanding on Sunday and holiday work.
5. Provide hospital and surgical insurance for the worker and his family, and workmen's compensation and life insurance for the worker.
6. Assure the worker of job security and encourage his family's participation in community affairs. Recognize educational, recreational, and social needs of the worker's family.

It was also pointed out that the employer must review his own supervisory methods. Does he inform the worker of his plans, methods, and goals? Does he insist on a worker with know-how and initiative, and yet not permit that worker to use his knowledge and then blame him when things go wrong? The old adage of "two heads are better than one" is still a good rule; quite often the employer can learn better or improved methods from a worker. One employer suggested they might need a rating bureau "among ourselves to determine whether we are good enough employers to deserve the good men we demand."

Where to Find the Good Farmhand

Where to find the good farmhand is just as difficult a question to answer. Agency personnel pointed out the various recruitment methods in use and the training facilities under development. Labor market information and labor force statistics are often misleading. Although the farm population and the number of farms are decreasing, the demand for good year-round workers is increasing in Iowa. As farm size continues to increase, we may also expect an increasing demand for these good workers. As was expected, recruitment methods were mentioned more often than a location source. Use of the local office, advertising, and friends or relatives seem to be the most common recruiting methods. Several employers expressed satisfaction with advertising over the local employment office name and letting the office do initial screening. While most employers prefer to hire workers from the home community, several commented on successful experiences in hiring nonlocal workers, particularly when they were screened and referred through interarea or interstate clearance. There seemed to be considerable interest in training programs if care is used in selecting trainees. Some employers were willing to give either complete or finish training to the right kind of men.

How the ES Can Help

Comments on how the State employment service could improve services were very pointed. The image of the "unemployment office," a connotation of "welfare services," and a feeling that the better workers do not go to the employment office were well answered by one of the so-called "city farmers." Pointing out that labor-management relations are like a two-way street, he suggested that employers visit the local office to discuss their needs and problems and to discover the many activities and services rendered by the office. Labor needs should be discussed with the office in the same manner as credit needs are discussed with the banker, machinery needs with the implement dealer, etc. Then, when needs arise, even sudden emergencies, the office is in a better position to help resolve the problems.

Other employers suggested that the local office could help by pointing out employer faults and worker complaints that employers may not have known or recognized. When employed workers contact the office seeking another job, the office could suggest they talk over their complaints with their employer first. The office could do more in keeping employers informed of changes in labor demand and supply, wages, and working conditions, etc. Better screening and selection of day workers would also be helpful.

SHEEPHERDERS

(*Continued from page 20*)

from the Employment Service. Since this procedure insures that domestic herders willing to accept year-round jobs in shortage States are offered referral as soon as they become available, there is no delay when the Association requests authority to import Basques.

Substantially the same agreement has now been reached with the Wyoming Wool Growers Association, the other major Basque contracting organization.

The Las Vegas local office is proud of this unique and important operation which serves the specialized occupation of sheepherding.

—ELOY E. LUDI, *Manager, Las Vegas local office, New Mexico Employment Security Commission.*

The desert of yesteryear is becoming the fertile field of today.

The Desert Blooms

Ask almost any well-traveled tourist his impressions of Nevada and he probably will describe glittering gambling palaces and seemingly endless miles of sparsely populated land, in that order.

Until less than a decade ago, his observations would have been reasonably accurate. Virtually all of Nevada's economy orbited about the axis of tourism in the metropolitan areas of Las Vegas and Reno, while the rest of the State—more than 100,000 square miles—was dismissed as being spectacularly scenic but largely incapable, in most areas, of sustaining human life.

Since 1956, however, Nevada's economic and physical appearances have undergone startling changes. In this, the State's centennial year, tourism remains an important industry, but its rapid growth has been dwarfed in recent years by tremendous gains in construction, real estate, finance, and trade. More than 100 new industries, not all of them dependent on the tourist dollar, have sprung up in the last 5 years to meet the demands of an expanding population.

March 1964

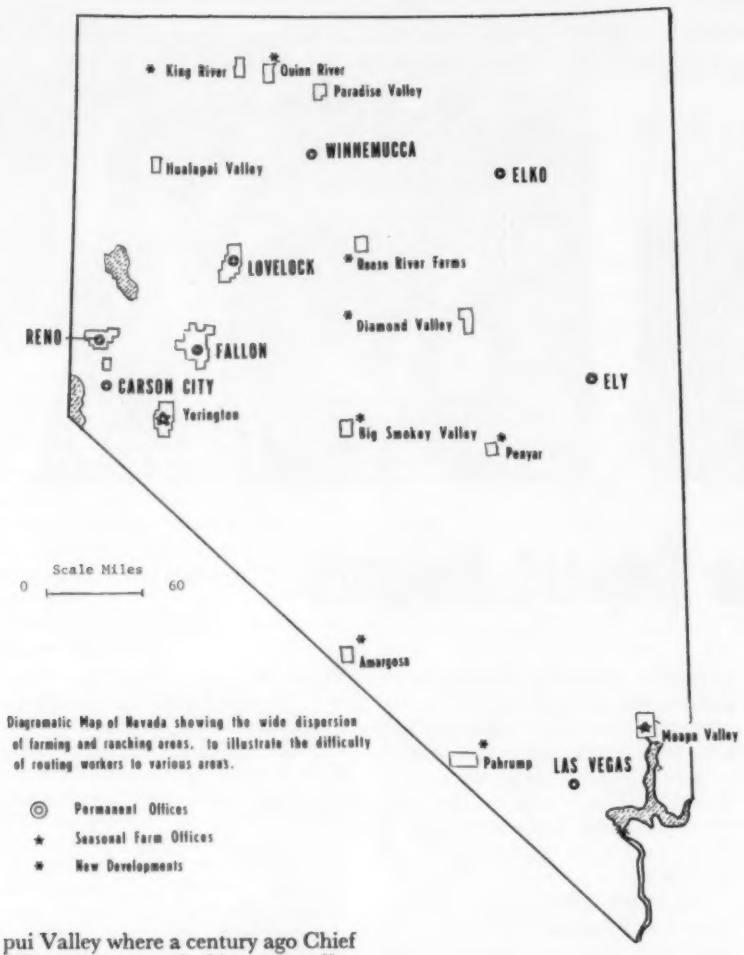
Perhaps even more startling to the outsider has been the burgeoning development of remote and previously arid land in Nevada. The agricultural renaissance began little more than 5 years ago with the discovery of underground water in scores of isolated valleys covered by sagebrush or mesquite.

One of the first targets of development was Pahrump Valley, a picturesque area which can reach in three directions to touch the past, the present, and the future. It lies 50 miles southeast of historically rich Death Valley, 65 miles west of Las Vegas, and 50 miles south of the Atomic Test Range at Camp Mercury.

Today, about 3,400 acres of cotton, plus other acreage in seed alfalfa, are cultivated each year in an area once considered barren. The story is much the same throughout the State, although the names and the crops are different. Scores of developments, widely separated and seldom near population centers, have etched a green checkerboard on the sandy desert.

In northern Nevada, 120 miles north of Reno, is the isolated Huala-

Farmworkers in a southern Nevada Pahrump Valley onion field.



Diagramatic Map of Nevada showing the wide dispersion of farming and ranching areas, to illustrate the difficulty of routing workers to various areas.

pui Valley where a century ago Chief Winnemucca and his marauding Paiutes challenged any white transgressor. Today, the peaceful Hualapui has more than 3,600 acres under irirgation. More than 1,000 acres of sugarbeets alone were harvested there last year.

About 100 miles northeast of the Hualapui are the King River and Quinn River Valleys where hundreds of tons of certified alfalfa and clover seed are harvested annually. The Reese River Valley, to the south, is another producer of alfalfa seed.

A variety of crops are produced in the Diamond Valley, located 20 miles from the old mining town of Eureka in the almost exact center of the State. Here, harvests include potatoes, alfalfa seed, grain, hay, and dry onions. This season, growers in the valley plan to raise a crop of green peas for freezing.

Although the cultivation of isolated acreage in Nevada has been rapid, it has not been without problems. Chief among these is a lack of local farm labor in almost all areas, and today, the success of the developments cited can be attributed to the heavy use of mechanical equipment in planting and harvesting.

The problem of labor recruitment is compounded because none of the developments is near metropolitan centers or other large rowcrop areas where workers can find temporary jobs if the harvest is delayed.

In the newer areas, housing may be substandard or even nonexistent. Some growers have erected good dwellings for the regular farmworkers, but have made no suitable provision for large groups of row-crop workers. Family housing remains scarce in all developments, old and new, although growers have constructed family-style dwellings for seasonal workers in southern Nevada's Pahrump and Moapa Valleys and in the northern Mason Valley.

Because few workers are willing to remain in isolated areas for any length of time, the problem of transportation is acute. The turnover is particularly expensive because securing a new worker may require a 200-mile round trip and a day lost for the employer. Seldom will an applicant travel this distance without full assurance of a job.

The attitude of the worker can hardly be questioned, in view of the housing situation and the fact that growers in some remote areas refuse to increase wages to compensate for the lonely surroundings. Also, family groups are unwilling to live 80 miles or more from the nearest hospital or school.

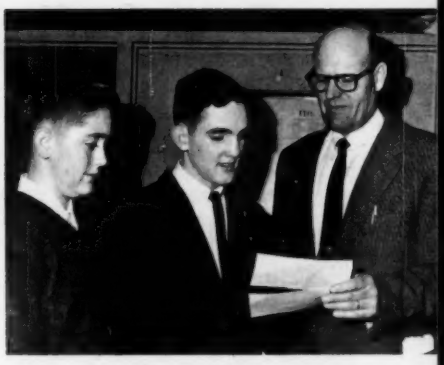
Thus far, most growers have circumvented the problem by avoiding crops that require a great amount of hand labor. But the cost of developing desert land is high, water pumped by diesel power is expensive, and if several growers decide that enough money can be made with high-labor demand crops, a serious situation might result.

Through the efforts of the Nevada State Employment Service and other groups, growers are beginning to realize that the answer lies in careful selection, systematic transportation arrangements, adequate housing, and additional pay for workers.

"If we want to raise crops that require hand labor, we're going to have to make some improvements," says one progressive grower. "We can't expect a man and his family to come hundreds of miles to work for us unless we're willing to offer something substantial in return."

—RICHARD KNIGHT, *Farm Placement Supervisor, Nevada Employment Security Department*

RISE and SHINE! IT'S PICKING TIME!



HILLSBORO ARGUS photo

Jim Sullivan, president of the Hillsboro Rotary Club, presents checks to Craig Miller, left, and James Galluzzo, who submitted the winning illustrations for the strawberry harvest labor recruitment pamphlet.

Each year, the local employment service office in Hillsboro, Oreg., undertakes to provide growers and processors with the workers needed to harvest and process the highly perishable crops of strawberries, caneberries, and green beans. The harvest workers are recruited throughout the Tualatin-Willamette Valley area, in the Portland metropolitan area, and even as far west as Tillamook and Astoria on the Oregon coast.

As soon as the worker statistics on the summer's crops are tallied, community planning begins on promotion for the next year's recruitment of harvest workers. One such project is a contest, sponsored by the local Rotary Club, for high school students to provide illustrations for an informational leaflet to be used in the recruitment program in the schools. Cash awards are presented to the students who submit the best entries.

The three-color recruitment leaflet is produced in quantities up to 10,000, and distributed to schools, students, and youth groups with the full cooperation of school administrators, teachers, service clubs, and parents. Most of the distribution of the leaflet is made in some 135 schools during an assembly period at which Employment Service representatives discuss the harvest program illustrated by a color motion picture. Some 15,000 young people are contacted to sign up for work in the valley crops for the following summer.

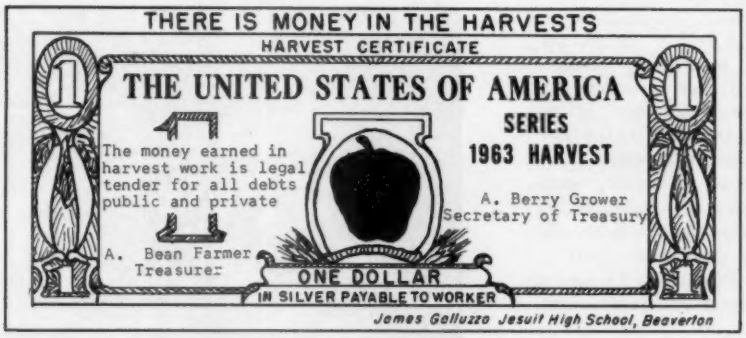
This recruiting leaflet is as much at home on the bank president's desk as it is in the school or beside the cash registers in the shopping centers. The leaflet includes a crop calendar, tells where and how to register for work and how to get there, and gives advice to adults regarding this activity.

One section of the pamphlet is directed to mothers who may wish to go with their children to live on farms rent free, while participating in the harvest.

The overall objective of this agricultural placement and recruitment program is to gather and channel these young people into a profitable and healthful summer pursuit. Many of these young people get their first work and earnings in this way. For all concerned—the youngsters, the recruiters, and the employers—the project provides the gratifying experience of helping countless teenagers earn their money for school clothes, supplies, and tuitions through jobs provided by this program.

A school administrator best sums up this recruitment program with the comment, "One of its most important values is that it helps establish in the minds of children a respectful attitude toward work that involves earning one's bread by the sweat of the brow."

—ALVIN E. ELKINS, *Manager, Oregon State Employment Service.*


THERE IS MONEY IN THE HARVESTS
HARVEST CERTIFICATE
THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
SERIES
1963 HARVEST
The money earned in harvest work is legal tender for all debts public and private
A. Berry Grower
Secretary of Treasury
A. Bean Farmer
Treasurer
ONE DOLLAR
IN SILVER PAYABLE TO WORKER

James Galluzzo Jesuit High School, Beaverton

Youth in Agriculture

RAY F. ROTH

Summer or weekend jobs are hard to find for many young people in California. Since agriculture includes many types of jobs that young people could do, an intensive drive to find more such jobs was begun in the State in 1961. There were two basic problems: (1) Many employers doubted that young people could be employed successfully, and (2) many young people thought agricultural jobs were undesirable.

By the end of 1963 the picture had changed. During that year, 84 Department of Employment offices placed 18,600 youth in 27,500 farm jobs during the vacation months. Records show that they earned approximately $2,246,000 in wages on these agricultural jobs.

About 11,000 youth worked in 19 fruit and nut crops; 10,500 were employed in 22 different vegetable crops; and about 2,600 worked in field crops, nurseries, or general farm operations. The crops in which the largest numbers of young persons were employed include: snap beans, apricots, grapes, strawberries, bushberries, prunes, tomatoes, lettuce, onions, and cucumbers.

Age, physical ability, hours of employment, and the nature of the jobs had to be considered in referral. Older boys picked peaches and pears, loaded lettuce, and did other jobs requiring considerable strength. Even short-handle-hoe work was accepted by a sizable group of boys. Girls picked berries and hand pollinated vegetables and flowers.

A panel of youthful workers at an annual farm placement meeting in 1963 stressed the fact that they preferred to work for young supervisors rather than the "older men"—meaning those of age 25! They felt "young" supervisors understood them better and were more patient in showing them how to do the job.

Stimulated by this suggestion, representatives of the Department of Employment approached the State Department of Education to explore what might be done to train young supervisors for youth crews working in agriculture. The Department of Education immediately began to devise a program to train vocational agricultural students in foremanship.

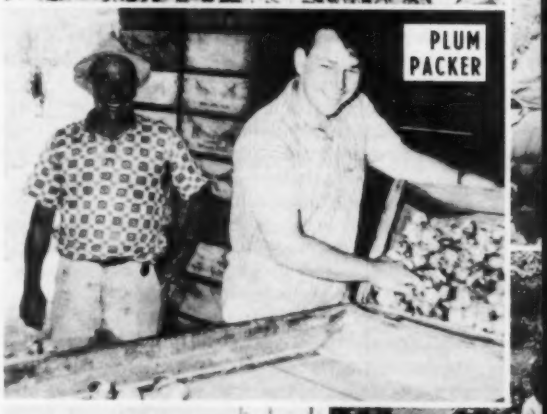
As a result, advanced high school vocational agriculture students and some college agriculture majors will be given this leadership training in the spring of 1964. About 15,000 students are expected to participate. The course will include: Laws and regulations which affect youth employment in California agriculture, job responsibilities and ethics, job opportunities (both temporary summer work and full-time career employment) in agriculture and agri-business, employer-employee relations, accident prevention and safety, basic principles of supervision, farm accounting, methods of keeping employee time sheets and production records.

Information on social security, disability insurance, workmen's compensation, etc., will be provided by representatives of the agencies concerned, usually in classroom talks to the

Ray F. Roth is chief of the Farm Placement Technical Section, California State Department of Employment.

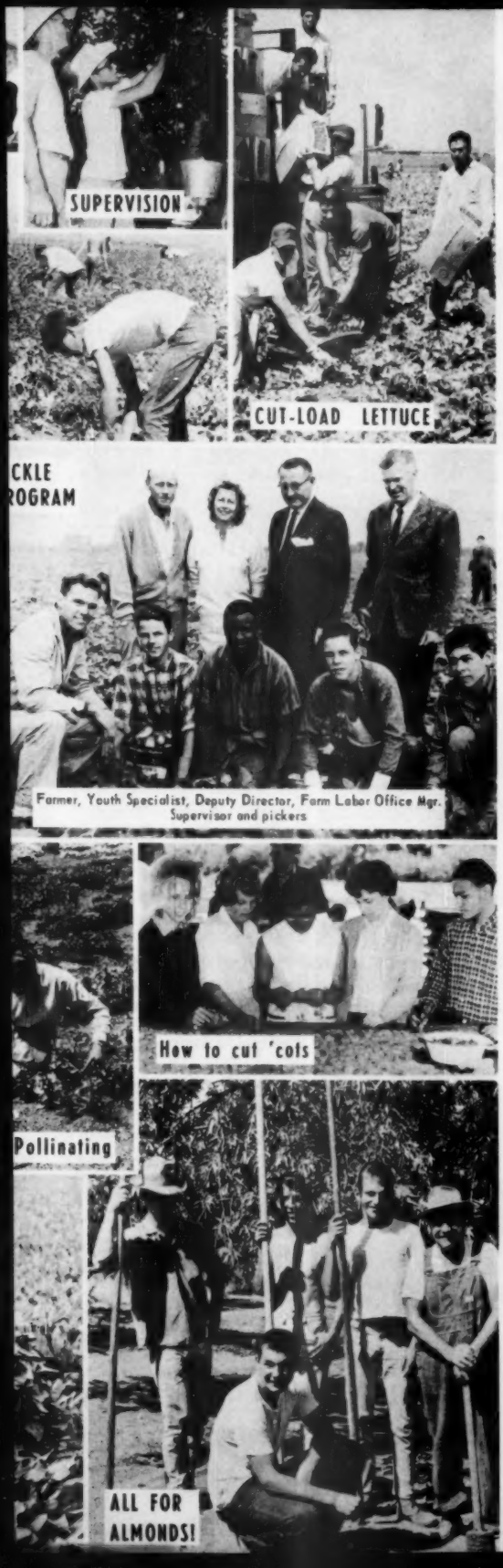
SIGN-UP DAY!

CUCUMBER PICKERS


PLUM PACKER

Director visits bean pickers

Cauliflower plant pulling



students. Pertinent information relative to local crops and working conditions will be supplied directly to the schools by area farmers and representatives of growers' associations.

To establish and promote effective working relationships at the local level, a statewide directory of school locations, administrators, and vocational agriculture teachers, along with Department of Employment offices and agricultural youth employment program coordinators, has been distributed to field staff of the Departments of Employment and Education.

An important factor contributing to the farmers' lack of interest in the past in hiring youth was misunderstanding of California and Federal laws related to the employment of youth. To help clarify the situation, local ES offices were requested to send to their State office lists of the most frequent questions and misconceptions of employers. Arrangements were made with the Industrial Welfare Commission, Department of Education, and other agencies to prepare nontechnical answers to such questions. The resulting DIGEST OF LAWS AND REGULATIONS has been widely distributed and has accomplished a great deal in eliminating employers' doubts about employing youth. A continuing system has been set up among local offices to refer questions concerning the laws to the appropriate agency for clarification.

The Department of Employment does not believe that there is any one best method for employing young people in agriculture. In some areas, crews made up exclusively of youth have been used successfully. In other areas, farmers may insist on intermingling youth with regular crews. Both methods work, but future efforts will be directed toward youth crews as a means of offering more employment for young workers.

In 1964, the Department will receive valuable aid from the California Farm Bureau. Long an advocate of offering youth jobs in agriculture, the Bureau has appointed a special committee to work with its members and the Department of Employment in promoting jobs for youth among county farm bureau members.

To promote acceptance of "farmwork" and improve its "status level" among young people, an intensified information and public relations program has been designed to attract them into agriculture and agri-business in both full-time "career" employment and temporary school-vacation employment. Several brochures and pamphlets have been prepared for general distribution. A 20-minute motion picture entitled "Busy Hands," produced by the Department of Employment is available for showing to farmers, youth groups, PTA's and other interested groups.

Not all young workers can produce as much as adults. But by paying piece rates, the agricultural employer pays only for what the young workers produce; hence, there is less resistance to giving them a chance. Often the employer must make specific job accommodations by way of supervision and less than normal workday hours.

All local offices agree that supervision is the key to successful employment of youth. However, proper orientation of youth is also important and the inclusion of parents in the process is helpful. Most young people welcome the responsibility of a job in addition to the opportunity to go to work, but those who have never had a job may have difficulty understanding what is meant by such terms as "hard work."

(Continued on page 49)

Metropolitan Youth Make Good Farmworkers

Under a net which protects the tobacco from wind, hail, and rain, the warm, humid atmosphere produces tall plants and large, perfect leaves.

Photos courtesy the Shade Tobacco Growers' Agricultural Assoc., Inc.

The leaves are gathered into canvas sleds and dragged into the shed.

A $2 million seasonal payroll earned by youth 14 to 17 years of age proves conclusively that, under the proper working conditions and supervision, youth can make a real dent in seasonal labor shortages faced by agricultural employers who are surrounded by a dynamic industrial economy.

Approximately 8,000 boys and girls recruited in 1963 by the Employment Service in metropolitan Hartford and six other ES offices serving the Connecticut River Valley, were given an opportunity for gainful farm employment in 1963. The Shade Tobacco Growers Agricultural Association provided a wide network of day-haul buses and planned routes to assure maximum use of area teenagers.

The 8 weeks of employment in tending the delicate multimillion dollar tobacco crop, which goes into cigar manufacture throughout the world, provides one of the greatest sources of agricultural jobs to school vacation youth in the United States.

This 1963 successful labor experience was not the result of rubbing any Space Age Aladdin's lamp. Rather, it was the culmination of nearly a quarter century of cooperative work between the Connecticut State Employment Service and the valley's growers. It was also a direct result of the increased drive by the agency to develop youth employment opportunities with employers.

More local youth were employed on tobacco farms in 1963 than in any of the past 15 years. In addition, about 1,800 boys and girls from other States were housed in area youth camps during the summer, bringing the total youth employed past the 10,000 mark.

A followup with youths who had worked this past season and their parents showed that the money earned was being spent for worthwhile purposes: Helping out at home, buying school clothes, purchasing musical instruments, paying the additional auto insurance premium required because the youth operated his parents' car. Furthermore, the wages earned by the young people made a major contribution to the economic and social well-being of area towns.

—William G. Clark, *Farm Placement Officer, Connecticut State Employment Service.*

The tobacco leaves are strung (left) and then carried to drying racks in the curing shed (right).

Tires and Tubes

This analysis of the Tires and Tubes Industry (Standard Industrial Classification Code 3011) is based largely on reports gathered by the affiliated State employment services from 46 establishments in March 1963, covering most of the industry's employment. Copies of the full report, No. *107* in the series of *Industry Manpower Surveys,* are available on request to the Branch of Industry and Skill Surveys of the United States Employment Service, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C., 20210.

Photo courtesy Goodyear News Bureau

Whitewall passenger car tires roll from the final production process. After inspection, they will be shipped to one of more than 200,00 dealers or stores.

Declining employment, rising production, and improved technology have characterized the tire and tube industry over the last decade. Since the Korean conflict, the industry's employment has declined nearly 19 percent to about 96,000 in 1963, despite a sharp increase in production in the corresponding period. The 1962 auto boom pushed shipments of original equipment tires for passenger cars to the highest since 1955 and, with motorists setting new travel records, demand continues strong for replacement tires. Production of truck and bus tires in 1962 was the highest for any year since the Korean conflict.

Emphasis upon modernization of plant and equipment is shown by the almost 90 percent increase in new capital expenditures since 1951, to $110.2 million in 1962, or more than double the 1951 investment per employee. Moreover, the per employee capital expenditure increase in the tire and tube industry between 1951 and 1962 was more than four times that for manufacturing as a whole. As a consequence, technological innovations have affected manpower requirements in virtually every phase of the indusrty's operations—from receiving and storing of raw materials to warehousing and storing of the finished product. Despite variations in the types of tires produced, completely automatic tire building machines have been installed in some plants.

Increasing mechanization and plant modernization have been accompanied by a decline in production workers by almost 22,000, or about 24 percent, between 1955 and 1963. At the beginning of that period, production workers constituted 76 percent of the industry's work force, but only 72 percent by 1963. This relative de-

TABLE 1.—*Average Annual Employment in the Tires and Inner Tubes Industry 1955–63*
[thousands]

Year	All employees	Production workers	Percent production workers of total
1955	118.5	90.5	76.4
1956	114.5	87.0	76.0
1957	112.9	85.1	75.4
1958	104.1	76.6	73.6
1959	104.5	77.0	73.7
1960	104.8	76.8	73.3
1961	97.7	70.6	72.3
1962	99.2	72.1	72.7
1963[1]	96.0	69.9	71.8
Net change (number of workers) 1955–63	−22.5	−21.6	.....
Percent change 1955–63	−19.0	−23.9	.....

[1] Includes preliminary data for December.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.—*Index of Production in the Tires and Inner Tubes Industry—1955–62*
[1957–59=100]

Year	Tires and tubes
1955	106.4
1956	97.4
1957	99.2
1958	90.6
1959	110.2
1960	110.2
1961	106.1
1962	122.1

Source: Federal Reserve Board.

cline was about in line with the trend for all manufacturing activities. Women workers accounted for less than 14 percent of industry employment in 1962, compared with 34 percent for other rubber products and 37 percent for all nondurable goods industries.

Concerned by the impact of changing technology and other problems affecting employment and worker status, the United Rubber, Cork, Linoleum, and Plastic Workers Union proposed the establishment of company-wide committees of union and management representatives to study problems of mutual interest. Major rubber companies concurred in the merits of the proposal and, as of early February 1964, it was expected that such committees would be established soon.

Imports a Minor Influence

While domestic tire exports consistently exceed the value of imports by a ratio of more than three to one, they are low in relation to the value of total tire shipments. In addition to tariffs and other trade restrictions, low exports reflect the fact that American-owned plants and sales outlets around the world supply a large segment of the foreign market. Presently, 92 of the 112 tire plants outside the United States and the Soviet bloc are owned by or affiliated with U.S. tire companies.

Ohio Loses, South Gains Employment

A shifting of tire and tube workers closer to producers' sources of raw materials and expanding market is evidenced by the 14 percent increase in employment of these workers in the South between March 1952 and March 1962. During this period, employment declined 23 percent in the North Central region and 22 percent in the West, remaining relatively stable in the Northeast. However, over 60 percent of the industry's employment in 1962 was still in the North Central States, with Ohio alone accounting for 43 percent of the Nation's tire and tube workers. Eighteen percent of the industry's work force was in the South, 13 percent in the Northeast, and 8 percent in the West. About four-fifths of the surveyed employment was in seven States: Alabama, California, Iowa, Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.

About three-fourths of the 96,000 tire and tube employment was in 18 major labor market areas in March 1963, with about 55 percent (40,500) in Akron, the principal industry center. The combined employment of the five other important areas—Des Moines, Detroit, Los Angeles-Long Beach, Memphis, and Philadelphia—was only about half that in Akron plants.

TABLE 3.—*Employment in the Tires and Inner Tube Industry Covered by Unemployment Insurance Laws March 1952 and March 1962*

Region and selected States [1]	Employment, March 1962		Employment, March 1952		Net change	Percent change
	Total	Percent distribution	Total	Percent distribution		
Total	98,682	100.0	116,901	100.0	−18,219	−15.6
Northeast	12,729	12.9	13,086	11.2	−357	−2.8
Pennsylvania	6,357	6.4	5,803	5.0	+554	+9.5
North Central	60,072	60.9	77,949	66.7	−17,877	−22.9
Ohio	42,758	43.3	61,653	52.7	−18,895	−30.6
South	17,915	18.1	15,714	13.4	+2,201	+14.0
Alabama	4,798	4.9	4,623	4.0	+157	+3.8
West	7,966	8.1	10,152	8.7	−2,186	−21.5
California	7,966	8.1	10,152	8.7	−2,186	−21.5

[1] Industry employment in the following States not listed because of disclosure of individual firm data in either March 1952 or March 1962: Arkansas, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, and Wisconsin.

Recent Layoffs in Heavy Unemployment Areas

Recent industry layoffs did not create serious local manpower surpluses, primarily because they were relatively small and occurred in major labor market areas. However, the bulk of the decline took place in major areas with already heavy unemployment. Fortunately, in small labor market areas where there is substantial unemployment, the number of tire and tube workers actually increased during the year ended March 1963. Nevertheless, a significant downturn in the tire and tube industry could seriously affect the smaller areas whose tire employment constitutes a major portion of the work force. A sharp downturn could similarly have serious implications in the Akron area, where the tire and tube industry dominates the economy.

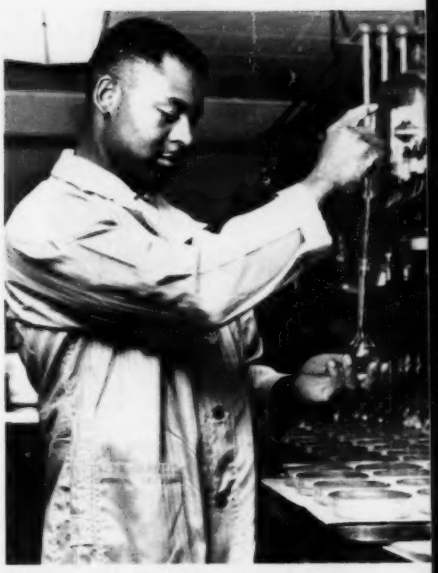
Few Firms Report Occupational Shortages

Manpower recruitment difficulties are few and occupational shortages insignificant, primarily because of the large number of laid-off workers who are subject to recall. The difficulty expressed by only eight of the surveyed firms in finding a limited number of qualified job applicants, particularly in professional occupations such as engineering and chemistry, was generally attributed to national

(*Continued on page 33*)

Equal Employment Opportunity—An ES Responsibility

ANTHONY FANTACI



The young technician at work here reveals that talent and skill know no racial barriers.

New thinking and action needed to wipe out discrimination against minority groups and to utilize manpower on basis of skills, potential, and capacity.

The factors and statistics relating to the magnitude and the seriousness of the "minority group problem" in the United States are by now generally recognized and well documented. In level of education, in amount of training, in degree of unemployment, in skill level, earnings, and opportunity in apprenticeship or for upgrading, Negroes as a group compare unfavorably with whites.

At the same time, occupational trends indicate greatest expansion in those jobs requiring greater preparation and higher skills and educational achievement. Even where the Negro man or woman has achieved a college education or a high-level skill, racial prejudice often denies him the opportunity to utilize it. For example, we find only 5 percent of Negro college men reported as proprietors, managers, or officials, compared with 22 percent of white college men. Similarly, about five times as high a proportion of Negro men with some college education work at service or unskilled jobs as do white men of similar training.

The vicious circle of poverty and discrimination results in a lack of educational opportunity, employment in low-level jobs interspersed with long periods of joblessness, and a heritage of deprivation and despair passed on from one generation to the next. In many respects the problem is increasing in complexity and degree. It will not resolve itself. It requires directed, planned, and purposeful action by all whom it affects—and all of us are affected.

In discussing Federal Government efforts to assure equal rights for everyone, David G. Wood, a steel industry public relations man, said:

"There appear to be a considerable number of business executives willing to condemn such use of Federal power. Many others (or perhaps they are the same ones) join and finance anti-Communist crusades. Using comparable energy and most likely less money, these same businessmen—through the power they possess in the American economy—could render Government action unnecessary and deliver worldwide communism a staggering blow. Equal status for the American Negro would undermine Communist strategy and propaganda everywhere. . . .

"I would expect the truly responsible leaders of business and industry, however, to work toward equality for Negroes simply because it is right. . . ." [1]

Many progressive business leaders, recognizing their social as well as economic interests, are actively working toward equality for Negroes. A glance at the membership of the Urban League's Commerce and Industry Council reads like a *Who's Who* of the Nation's largest firms.

With business seriously examining its role and responsibility for helping the Negro actually obtain what is his by right as a human being and as an American citizen, we in the Employment Service may, with even greater cause, examine our own role and responsibility. The need for such self-examination applies to all of us in the Employment Service without regard to geographic location, size of office, or industrial composition of the community in which we live and work.

It is not the purpose of this article to go into the moral issues involved. These apply with equal force and pertinence to everyone in or out of the Employment Service. We might well modify Mr. Wood's statement

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[1] *How Businessmen Can Fight "Big Government,"* Harper's Magazine, November 1963, pp. 77–81.

Growing numbers of Negro women today prove their ability as capable and efficient workers.

and say, "I would expect the staff of a public employment service to work toward equality for Negroes simply because it is right." It is the purpose of this article, however, to review the role and responsibility of Employment Service staff members in the light of their unique professional responsibility and ethics as employment interviewers, counselors, etc., in a public agency.

The Employment Service staff member knows that in our highly industrialized, increasingly interdependent, and automated economy, a job today is far more than a means of preventing starvation and keeping a roof over one's head. It is an index of the amount and kind of education an individual has received and what he will be able to provide to his children; it is the greatest determinant of social status in the community; it determines one's concept of oneself and one's self-esteem; it is probably the one most important factor in the life of a person who must support himself or on whom others are dependent for support. It follows that denial of equal opportunity for employment, without regard to a person's actual or potential ability, removes one of the foundation stones on which each individual must build his life.

Over the years, the Employment Service staff member has battled bias and prejudice directed against categories of workers, such as the handicapped and the older worker. He knows that, to be effective in this effort, he must first identify such bias as exists in himself and either overcome it or, failing this, consciously prevent the bias from entering into the conduct of his official duties. Because racial prejudice has even deeper roots, it is all the more incumbent on the Employment Service staff member to apply his knowledge of the mechanism of bias to help him discharge his responsibilities in matching jobs and men in a professional and objective manner.

Acceptance of this responsibility means that the local employment office will take leadership in promoting equal opportunity in the community. The local office cannot wait until the community decides it is "ready," any more than it sat back and waited until the community was ready to accept its responsibility for equal employment opportunity for handicapped or older workers—battles, incidentally, not yet won. It is those who are in a position to recognize the nature and extent of a problem and to recommend ways and means of resolving it who must act. If they don't, and in this case "they" means "us," we can hardly expect such action from others.

In addition, not only the dictates of our professional responsibility but also the official Employment Service policies with respect to minority groups, binding on all State and local offices, require us to adopt an unbiased viewpoint. We must initiate action to change such prevailing practices as result in nonutilization or underutilization of manpower, and provide services to applicants, no less than to employers, in accordance with their needs.

In this light, how do we go about translating into action our organizational and occupational responsibilities with respect to minority groups? How do we change (if change is needed) our customary ways of thinking and acting—even if only during the time spent at work? It is so easy to act in accordance with our biases that only a voluntary and deliberate effort to combat such biases on the part of each of us can be successful. For example, the receptionist may automatically refer the male Negro to the unskilled labor section, the female Negro to the domestic or service section, without even inquiring into their skills. The placement interviewer, searching the active file, may unthinkingly glance at an address or school and pass over applications where these items identify the applicant as Negro. The counselor may without conscious intent discuss only unskilled or service job possibilities with a Negro youth because they are "traditional" job outlets for Negroes.

To encourage and foster voluntary efforts to neutralize bias in ourselves, there must be, first, a clear statement of policy and procedure by the administrative head of the agency. This must be accompanied by an organized training program different from what we usually think of as training—a program aimed at changing habit patterns of thought and feeling. Experience has shown that this can be accomplished best by scheduling small discussion groups, meeting regularly and for relatively short periods, to discuss the problem. The interchange of ideas and the expression of feelings in such groups often provide new insights and understanding that no amount of "telling" can produce. A biased person may recognize his bias for the first time when he has an opportunity to express and defend his views, or when he listens to another's defense of a biased attitude. It is also quite likely that a significant number, or even a majority of the group, have already reached the point where they have recognized their own biases and are consciously attempting to prevent these biases from affecting the carrying out of their duties. These persons can exert a positive and healthy influence on others in the group. It is often surprising to find that in such groups there are more persons with openminded attitudes than might have been anticipated.

If these group meetings are to achieve their objective, they must he led by individuals who will permit free discussion of all points of view, and who will be in a position to supply or obtain factual material as The regularity of such meetings is at least as important as the amount of time scheduled. One short meet-

Utilizing the technical knowledge of all workers regardless of their color is essential to human dignity and national progress.

ing held regularly every 2 weeks will be more effective than longer meetings held at varying time intervals.

Also, because there will be some individuals who will be immune to change and will continue to act in accordance with their biases, the agency head must make it clear that discriminatory practices will not be tolerated. Industry can provide us with evidence of the efficacy of this step. In one plant, when Negro workers were hired in jobs from which they formerly had been excluded, a number of white employees protested vigorously. When management made it clear that it planned to keep the Negroes and that white employees were free to resign if they wished to, the clamor subsided and it was not long before harmony was restored. While the situations are different, the plant experience does indicate the need for a firm personnel policy and procedure to bring into line those employees who fail to carry out their duties and responsibilities in this area.

To date, the facilities and services of practically all geographically or "divisionally" separated offices have been incorporated into nonsegregated offices, primarily through reorganization on an industrial-occupational basis. While this represents an important first step, in and of itself this does little to change concepts or attitudes of individuals. Now our attention and effort must be directed to this objective and, as this objective is being attained, efforts can be directed toward positive action in the community. While Employment Service efforts to promote equal employment opportunity represent only one part of a total community effort to help the Negro achieve educational, political, and economic equality, these efforts can include such actions as: (1) ascertaining all skills, training, and other qualifications possessed by Negro applicants, and classifying them accordingly; (2) counseling minority group workers on the basis of their present and potential qualifications, without regard to "customary" racial occupational patterns; (3) undertaking job development for Negroes with potential or actual skills that are in demand; (4) identifying government contractors and equal opportunity employers, providing this information to all interviewers and counselors, and stimulating them to use it; (5) recruiting at Negro colleges, providing counseling and job development services as needed; and (6) developing cooperative relationships with responsible minority group organizations in the community.

A public employment service worthy of public confidence must promote utilization of available manpower—all manpower—on the basis of individual skills, potential, and capability. The past 3 years have seen tremendous strides, not only in bringing about needed awareness of the depth and urgency of the problem, but also in attacking it on several fronts. The Employment Service now has an opportunity to lead in the field of equal employment opportunity, rather than to let others assume its role. In so doing, we in the Employment Service will be carrying out our responsibility, professionally and as public servants, to combat actively the waste in our human resources that results from discrimination on the basis of race, creed, or color, as well as because of age or handicap status.

Tires and Tubes

(Continued from page 30)

shortages. Other hard-to-fill openings in one or two plants included journeymen tool and die makers, pipefitters, and maintenance machinists and mechanics.

Production workers are generally hired at the unskilled level and are promoted through on-the-job training. Recruitment is frequently conducted at the gate or through recommendations of present employees. State employment security agencies placed 17 percent of all new employees in surveyed establishments in a single month in 1963. Many plants have rigid qualifications for production applicants, including a strict physical examination, as well as height, weight, and age specifications, while some companies require manual dexterity tests.

Industry's Workers Are Highly Paid

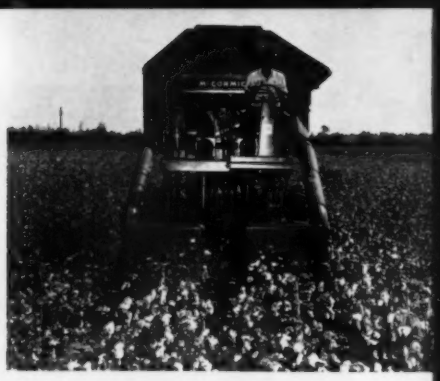
The industry's production workers, among the highest paid in the Nation, received an average weekly wage of $130.47 in 1962 compared to an average of $96.56 per week for all manufacturing workers. During the years 1957–62, weekly wages of tire and tube production workers increased an average of 22 percent, including premium pay, compared to an average rise of 18 percent for all manufacturing workers.

Entry wage rates of more than half of the firms surveyed by State employment security agencies in March 1963 were at least $1.95 per hour for male workers, with firms in the Northeast and North Central regions paying the highest and plants throughout the South generally offering the lowest entry rates.

—Kenneth D. Bell, U.S. Employment Service.

FARM LABOR MARKET

Developments in 1963



Seventy percent of the 1962–63 cotton crop was harvested by machine.

The displacement of workers by cotton-harvest machines was the major cause of a decline in employment of seasonal hired farmworkers for the fourth straight year in 1963. Sharp decreases in production of tomatoes, cherries, and citrus fruits also contributed to a 5 percent reduction in employment between 1962 and 1963. For foreign workers, the employment decline was 20 percent; for domestic migrants, 11 percent; and for local workers, 1 percent.

The average number of seasonal hired farmworkers employed in major agricultural areas reporting to the Bureau of Employment Security was 674,600 in 1963, a decline of 5 percent from the previous year. The annual peak employment, 1,146,400, was reached at the end of June; it was 7 percent less than the year-earlier peak. Of the 8.1 million man-months of seasonal hired labor used in 1963, vegetable, cotton, and fruit employment accounted for 23 percent, 21 percent, and 19 percent, respectively, slightly smaller proportions than in 1962.

As in 1962, fewer workers were needed to produce more *cotton*. At 15.5 million bales in 1963, the cotton crop was 5 percent larger than in 1962, according to the U.S. Department of Agriculture. However, the total 1.7 million man-months of seasonal labor used on all cotton activities marked a 12 percent decrease from 1962. Harvest employment, which accounted for 57 percent of the total man-months, declined 19 percent from the 1962 level. Greater mechanization, aided by dry, sunny weather, was responsible for the decline. Muddy fields, which sometimes prevented the use of heavy machinery in previous years, were not a problem in the peak months of 1963. At the mid-October peak, cotton harvesting employed 364,300 workers, some 17 percent fewer than were employed at the 1962 peak. Texas accounted for almost a third of the Nation's total man-months, but used 27 percent fewer man-months in 1963 than in 1962. For the country as a whole, cotton cultivation required 3 percent fewer man-months than a year earlier, and the peak cultivation employment of 244,600 in mid-June was 6 percent below the 1962 peak. Less acreage, as well as increased use of herbicides, mechanical cultivators, and other labor-saving devices, was responsible for this decline.

Employment in *vegetable* activities was 6 percent below the preceding year. The reduction was concentrated in requirements for potato, bean, and tomato activities, whose combined employment accounted for 43 percent of the vegetable total. Tomato acreage was cut drastically to allow the market to absorb the heavy inventory of canned tomatoes already on hand. Tomato production declined 21 percent and required 17 percent fewer man-months of seasonal hired labor than in 1962. Bean and potato production was little changed from the preceding year, while man-months of employment in these crops fell off 13 percent and 9 percent, respectively, reflecting further increases in the use of the mechanical bean-picker and the potato combine.

Adverse weather was primarily responsible for the 8 percent decline in *fruit* employment in 1963. The curtailment of cherry and strawberry production contributed heavily to the drop in the annual peak employment for all fruits in July. It fell from 337,600 in 1962 to 267,200 in 1963. In contrast to the abundant cherry crop of 1962, the 1963 crop was abnormally poor because of winter freezes and spring frosts, and employment was cut in half. The sour cherry crop was the smallest since 1945.

Citrus fruits required 13 percent fewer man-months, in accordance with a corresponding decrease in production between calendar years 1962

During an 8-hour day, the average handpicker will harvest 300 pounds of snap beans, while a mechanical harvester using two men can pick an estimated 20,000 pounds.

With this mechanical potato picker, a crew of 12 men can do the work previously requiring 33 persons.

Seabrook Farms photos

With the aid of a mechanical spinach picker, 2 or 3 operators can perform the work formerly done by 50 to 60 workers.

A self-propelled green pea combine which is designed to replace several machines was tried on an experimental basis in Washington State in 1963.

and 1963. Large portions of the Florida citrus crop had been destroyed by a severe freeze. Production and employment were down also for peaches. On the other hand, increased production of grapes and bushberries resulted in modest employment gains.

Poor Job Opportunities for Migrants

In 1963, migrant worker employment ranged from 31,400 in February to 239,600 in mid-July, averaging 115,800 for the year. This average included 42,200 intrastate workers and 73,600 interstate workers.

Migratory workers were seriously affected by fewer job opportunities in many of the crops in which they are most commonly employed, such as citrus fruits, cherries, strawberries, tomatoes, and cotton. Peak employment of migratory workers was 14 percent less than in 1962, and their annual average employment dropped 11 percent. The three leading States in terms of employment—California, Michigan, and Texas—also had the biggest cutbacks in peak migrant worker employment—15 percent, 25 percent, and 48 percent, respectively. In Michigan, job opportunities were affected by lower cherry and strawberry production. Thousands of migrants who usually come to major labor-demand areas in Texas and California did not find it worth their while financially to travel great distances for a short term of employment. In California, the grape harvest was shortened by the weather, and in Texas the cotton harvest was shortened by machines.

Further Decline in Foreign Workers

Approximately 209,200 foreign contract workers were admitted to the United States in 1963, compared with 217,000 in 1962. They included 186,900 Mexicans, 12,900 British West Indians (including Bahamians), 8,500 Canadians, and 900 Japanese.

Foreign nationals worked 678,300 man-months in the United States in 1963, contributing 8 percent of the year's total man-months of seasonal labor. Mexican workers accounted for 82 percent of the foreign labor used, British West Indians 15 percent, Japanese and Filipinos 2 percent, and Canadians 1 percent. Mexican labor was concentrated primarily in tomato and strawberry activities in California; lettuce, citrus, and melon activities in California and Arizona; sugarbeet and vegetable work in Colorado and other mountain States; cotton production in Texas and Arkansas; and cucumber harvesting in Michigan. Most of the British West Indian labor was used in Florida for producing sugarcane, citrus fruits, and winter vegetables, but a few of these workers were employed in the apple orchards of other eastern seaboard States. All of the Japanese and Filipinos were located in California where they worked on fruit and vegetables. Most of the Canadians came in to harvest Maine potatoes.

Curtailed use of foreign labor accounted for 44 percent of the total reduction of 388,400 man-months in employment of all seasonal hired workers. In 1963, foreign-worker employment averaged 56,500, or 20 percent less than in 1962. Peak foreign-worker employment, at 105,500 in September, was the lowest since 1950 and 17 percent below the 1962 figure.

Average employment of Mexican contract workers declined 23 percent to 45,900. Their peak employment, 90,100 in September, had declined 19 percent from that of 1962 and was the lowest peak since Public Law 78 was passed in 1951. These cutbacks were due primarily to reduced tomato production in California and to increased use of cotton-harvest machines in Texas and Arkansas. Restrictions on the employment of Mexican contract workers on long-term jobs also affected their use for livestock-tending in Texas.

British West Indian employment averaged 8,700 in 1963, down 4 percent from 1962 as a result of lower citrus production in Florida. The 1963 peak, 14,900 in January, was higher than the 1962 peak, 13,800 in December, because of emergency harvest needs to salvage the citrus crop heavily damaged by freezes.

Japanese and Filipino employment averaged 1,300, about the same as in the preceding year. Canadian employment reached a peak of 8,400, slightly lower than in 1962.

The Shutdown

LEWIS F. NICOLINI

The city of South Bend was slowly returning to routine activities after the shock of President Kennedy's death. The Thanksgiving celebration had been saddened and dispirited, but now the approach of Christmas and the new year brought some cheer and hope.

The employees at Studebaker Corporation faced their usual on-and-off work pattern typical of the season. They had learned to live with this situation, to expect interrupted production, cutbacks, and recalls. So had the local merchants, the wholesalers, and the professional people whose incomes also reflected the changes.

Studebaker, a pioneer in automobile manufacturing, was a powerful economic force in the South Bend area. The company employed over 7,238 workers in November out of a total employment of 90,200 in the area. The company had been in business 111 years and had converted a wagon-making plant to auto production. Over the years, Studebaker repeatedly prospered, then lost ground. The plant grew older and became expensive to operate. Except for the aviation plant, which was constructed in 1941, nothing has been built at Studebaker since 1928. Modern auto plants are built all on one floor with continuous assembly lines. Studebaker's lines were broken up on each floor, and machinery parts had to be carried up and down stairs.

Studebaker's announcement of the abandonment of the South Bend plant came from New York on December 9, just 40 minutes before the day shift ended. Most of the firm's employees and their neighbors in St. Joseph County had heard rumors and whispers, but nearly all had felt that Studebaker was the Gibraltar of the community. The actual move was a severe shock, felt by an ever-widening circle of individuals, communities, supplier firms, government officials, merchants, and businessmen.

The employees and their families took the initial blow. Then the St. Joseph County Manpower Advisory Committee began to take action. So did the United Auto Workers and numerous civic groups. The Indiana Employment Security Division, the Governor, the area's congressional representatives, Cabinet members, and top Federal agencies became involved. There were telephone calls, hurried trips to and from South Bend, from Indianapolis, and Washington, and meetings, meetings, meetings. Representatives of the news media were on the scene in South Bend, Indianapolis, and Washington. The dominant topic of conversation in South Bend, in the State capital, and in the Nation's Capital was the Studebaker situation.

President Johnson issued a five-point program which directed Secretary of Labor Wirtz to establish the maximum number of training projects consistent with the needs and demands of the area; Secretary of Commerce Hodges to have the Area Redevelopment Administration help the community attract new industry; Agriculture Secretary Orville L. Freeman to expedite the distribution of surplus food to displaced workers; and Defense Secretary Robert S. McNamara to try to have the military-truck contract completed in South Bend. The President also arranged to have a full-time official of the newly created Interagency Coordinating Committee stationed in South Bend.

Long-time employees leave

Out of the conferences, the committee discussions, the meetings, the plans, and the staff assignments grew action. The Indiana Employment Security Division in South Bend leased additional temporary quarters to handle job registrations and to provide space for employers coming to the city to recruit. Arrangements were made to handle unemployment insurance claims from Studebaker employees at the union hall as well as at the office.

The Division enlarged its benefit computing and payment staffs temporarily and went on overtime so that unemployment insurance payments would go without delay to the Studebaker workers as well as to all the State's unemployed.

(*Continued on page 39*)

Lewis F. Nicolini is Director of the Indiana Employment Security Division.

BEND STORY

The Reemployment Program

HAROLD KUPTZIN

the plant for the last time.

The Labor Department's program for coping with mass layoff situations, such as that which occurred in South Bend, operates primarily through the U.S. Employment Service and the affiliated State employment services. The program has three objectives: To help shorten the period of unemployment faced by the workers affected; to assure that—wherever possible—these workers will receive some income while they are unemployed; and to minimize any other employment dislocations resulting from the shutdown. This is done through a program of expanded and intensified direct personal services to the workers involved provided by the USES and State employment services, and designed to speed up occupational reorientation of the affected workers, and to broaden their prospects for reemployment.

The USES-Indiana State Employment Service South Bend program is based on experiences in similar mass layoff situations. These indicated that effective placement service often depends on knowledge of the workers' secondary skills, aptitudes, and interest, rather than on gearing efforts solely to jobs carrying industrial and skill classifications similar to those previously held. For this reason, many of the initial employment service activities under this program were designed to identify readily marketable skills, or skills that could be made marketable, with some additional or refresher training.

Prior to the layoff, the Employment Service had developed the necessary plans, procedures, and arrangements for implementing its mass layoff program. Action to put the program into effect began the day after the announcement of the impending Studebaker shutdown.

In South Bend, the program plans and arrangements involved a number of immediate actions to deal with the effects of the shutdown:

(1) Arrangements had to be completed for the expeditious handling of unemployment insurance claims and the prompt payment of unemployment insurance benefits to eligible workers. This was made more urgent by the need to provide laid-off workers with some income, particularly since the Studebaker production workers did not receive any severance pay and the supplementary unemployment benefit fund was just about exhausted.

(2) An immediate review and exploration had to be made of area training needs; projects had to be initiated to help increase the reemployment prospects of the Studebaker workers. Some vocational training under the Manpower Development and Training Act was just about ready to get underway at the time the layoff occurred, but a much broader program was required to meet the current situation.

(3) Arrangements had to be made for an early start on a depth interview program to help assess the secondary skills and qualifications of the workers being separated. This meant locating new office space, arranging for the equipment needed, and drafting personnel from other local offices in the State to staff the operations.

(4) An immediate expansion had to be programed in State and employment office activities relating to area job development and interarea recruitment activities, to help develop new job opportunities for the displaced workers.

(5) It was necessary to develop a quick but thorough analysis of the labor market situation and outlook for the South Bend area as a whole, to see if the area could qualify for special assistance in the award of Federal contracts, or under legislation such as the Area Redevelopment Act or the Public Works Acceleration Act.

(6) Finally, the USES-Indiana Employment Service program called for the prompt establishment of a Citizens Reemployment Committee, to work in close cooperation with the State employment service, in spearheading local efforts for placing the Studebaker employees.

Most of these priority tasks were initiated, or well underway by the

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time of the Studebaker shutdown on Friday, December 20. A Special Depth-Interview Center was opened in downtown South Bend on Monday, December 23, and the State agency detailed 10 additional persons (6 professionals and 4 clerks) to work in the center.

Major Developments and Accomplishments

Some of the major developments and accomplishments were:

(1) *Income Maintenance*—Claims for unemployment insurance benefits from more than 5,000 former Studebaker workers have been handled by the South Bend office of the Indiana Employment Security Division since the shutdown of the plant on December 20. All told, over $1 million has been paid out thus far to former Studebaker workers since the layoff.

(2) *Manpower Training*—More training or retraining under the Manpower Development and Training Act is planned for the South Bend area than was approved during fiscal year 1964 in al but a dozen of the 50 States.

A multioccupational area training center is being set up at the Studebaker "40–A" facility and at the Cline School in South Bend. At this time, there are 21 training projects in the pipeline for the center. Nine of the programs have been approved by the Department of Labor. Many of these have already started or will get underway shortly.

These 21 projects—developed by the USES and the Indiana State Employment Service in cooperation with HEW and local vocational authorities—will provide training oportunities for 1,500 workers. This is in addition to six MDTA projects— involving 210 workers—which were initiated prior to the Studebaker shutdown and were already in operation in South Bend in mid-February.

These six courses provide training in such occupations as auto mechanic, auto body repairman, machine operator (general), draftsman, clerk (general), and nurse aide. Courses were planned to start in late February or early March for refrigeration mechanic, oil-burner serviceman, and data-processing clerks. Courses have also been approved for auto mechanics and body repairmen, building maintenance workers, data processing programmers, architectural draftsmen, cooks and helpers. Training has also been programed but funds are not yet available for combination welder, maintenance mechanic II, screw-machine operator, job setter, machineshop inspector, electric-motor repairman, and upholsterer.

A planning meeting for Studebaker workers.

(3) *Identification of Secondary Skills*—Through February 29, the special Studebaker-South Bend manpower office had sent "call-in" notification cards to about 5,600 of 6,800 displaced Studebaker workers, asking them to appear for a scheduled "in-depth" interview. More than half of the workers contacted have responded and, at this writing, 2,960 have already been interviewed intensively. Another 600 have had regular interviews or been registered for regular job services; nearly 1,800 have taken the GENERAL APTITUDE TEST BATTERY.

(4) *Job Development and Interarea Recruitment*—The Indiana State Employment Service has mailed letters to 2,300 Indiana employers in metalworking industries, providing information on the number and kinds of workers available, and explaining the procedures being used to facilitate interarea recruitment.

The local citizens reemployment group—set up partly at the suggestion of the Employment Service—is now a functioning organization and is working closely with the Service to help expand local employment opportunities and to promote local industrial development.

(5) *Progress in Reemployment*—It is still too early to provide a definitive picture of what these activities will mean with respect to the reemployment of the Studebaker workers. Experience in similar mass layoff situations indicates that many of the workers involved cling to a hope that, somehow, they will be called back to their old jobs. It generally takes several months for such workers to accept the fact that the shutdown is permanent and that some occupational reorientation will be necessary.

This may also be true with respect to the Studebaker closing, especially in view of the temporary callback of about 1,700 Studebaker workers in mid-January, and the possibility that several Federal truck contracts held by Studebaker will be fulfilled in South Bend.

Responses received from Studebaker workers to the call-in cards show that at least 950 former Studebaker employees are working elsewhere. Some 540 of these are with other local firms, about 190 are in other areas in Indiana, and another

220 found jobs in other States. The total figures are probably somewhat higher than these, since call-in cards were sent to only about five-sixths of the laid-off workers.

In addition, about 2,100 workers were employed at the Studebaker plant as of February 29—some 1,400 production and 700 clerical people. These figures include the 1,700 who were called back in mid-January for about a month's work.

As another indicator of the degree of reemployment, the South Bend local office recently conducted a mail survey of the labor force status of 265 salaried and high-skilled Studebaker workers, based on a list furnished by the company. So far, they have received about 90 responses, and 75 of these indicated they had found other employment.

Another 429 of those laid off have retired under the funded Studebaker pension plan and are now out of the job market. It is estimated that a total of 1,100 workers will be eligible for retirement under the pension program by October 1964. It is not known how many of these are interested in reemployment.

For the South Bend area as a whole (all of St. Joseph County), the USES and State employment service have estimated that total unemployment (including Studebaker and other workers regardless of whether they filed unemployment insurance claims) amounted to about 8,200 workers in mid-February, representing about 9.1 percent of the work force. This is almost five times the October 1963 total of 2.1 percent (before the Studebaker shutdown)—the lowest area rate in the past 10 years.

The USES officially designates areas as "areas of substantial unemployment" when 6 percent or more of the local work force is unemployed for other than seasonal or temporary factors. South Bend was designated as a substantial unemployment area on December 18. This action made it possible for firms in the South Bend area to receive a degree of preference in the award of Federal Government procurement contracts. Because local unemployment totals have not been relatively persistent, the area is not yet eligible for assistance under the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961.

As noted earlier, information at hand today on local employment and the employment outlook is still too fragmentary to provide a coordinated picture of how sucessful the reemployment efforts in South Bend will be. It may be 6 months or more until there will be a clear-cut indication of the degree to which South Bend has been able to bounce back from the effects of the Studebaker shutdown.

THE SHUTDOWN

(*Continued from page 36*)

The Division wrote to employers in the State (about 2,300 in all) whose job requirements were similar to Studebaker's. The letters explained the type of workers available and urged employers who needed similarly qualified employees to call their local division office or the central clearance section for more information and to arrange interviews in South Bend.

Federal and State officials worked out a program to train between 1,000 and 1,600 of the workers left jobless. Courses will be developed for about 25 occupations in which there are labor shortages. The first classes in data processing, data processing programing, refrigeration and air-conditioning maintenance, and oil-burner and automatic-heating maintenance, were scheduled to start in late February or early March. The Department of Labor designated South Bend as an "area of substantial unemployment" making the area eligible under the Public Works Acceleration Act. Governor Welsh arranged with Federal officials to suspend temporarily the requirement that an individual must have used up nearly all of his cash assets before he can receive Federal surplus food. Mortgage forbearance agreements were reached for those purchasing homes.

Not a day passes but that South Bend takes a step. There are setbacks, such as the ripple of secondary unemployment now appearing. There are the severance pay arrangements for salaried employees. This is one of the encouraging parts of the situation since these employees may feel they are not panicked into accepting just any job offer. They can have a period in which to look around and decide whether to leave the area or stay, to choose a new occupation or continue in the same field.

There is the fact that some of the skills represented in the production worker group are in demand. And there is the drawback that many of the Studebaker workers were with the company for many years. They are not all young men. Most have passed what employers call the "prime working age." In fact, the average Studebaker employee was 54 years of age. And, too often, he is semiskilled, with a skill or trade peculiar to the automobile industry and often specifically just to Studebaker.

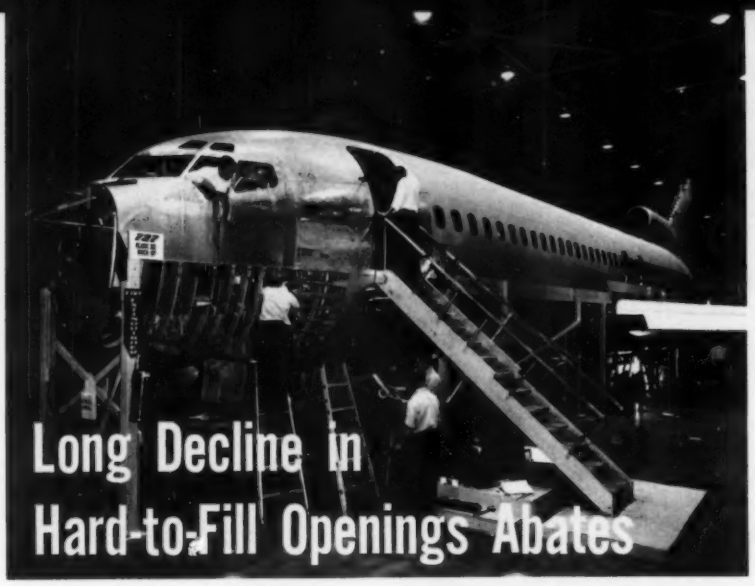
Some workers have not yet come to grips with the situation. They believe the plant will magically reopen if they just wait a while. Some who might have excellent job offers elsewhere may be too tied to their lives in South Bend to make the move. Houses are not selling too quickly and pulling up stakes is not a decision to be made lightly if the individual has always lived in one area and worked for one employer.

The Indiana State Employment Service, with the cooperation of the U.S. Employment Service, and the help of community leaders, has initiated a broad job development campaign to widen local employment opportunities. Emphasis is being given to counseling, testing, and clearance to expand placement potentials.

The movement of new industry into South Bend would be the simplest solution to the situation. This may come about. Evansville, which was in the economic doldrums for many years, is now attracting new plants and the economic picture there is brightening.

The South Bend story is just beginning. The solutions are in the making. The city's citizens regard the Studebaker closing as a temporary setback and as a problem they can successfully meet. The problem is complex, with social as well as economic aspects, and the economic hardships probably will be more easily assuaged than those reflecting the social aspects.

OCCUPATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS



Long Decline in Hard-to-Fill Openings Abates

The slide in demand for engineers, scientists, technicians, and other skilled workers since mid-1962 abated during the fourth quarter of 1963. The sharp decline in demand for these workers by defense-related industries leveled off, and a limited stepup in demand by nondefense industries developed. Centralized recruitment of teachers for military installations overseas added to the seasonal rise in professional and managerial openings traced to the Army's search for teachers each December. As a result, the number of job openings placed in interarea recruitment by State employment security agencies rose nearly 8 percent between September and December 1963.

A letup in intensive recruitment by prime contractors in defense-related industries eased stringent local shortages of technical manpower during 1963. Reduced needs for engineering, scientific, and technical personnel dominated the over-the-year decline in demand for professional and managerial manpower. Strongest impact was upon the engineers' job market—clearance orders in this field dropped more than 40 percent between December 1962 and December 1963. Openings for scientists and technicians dropped over 30 percent in the same period. At the end of 1963, interarea recruitment activity for the professional and managerial group was nearly 20 percent below the previous December.

A parallel downturn in demand for clerical workers occurred during the year. Interarea recruitment for qualified stenographers, typists, and clerks slipped over 25 percent as Federal agencies in the District of Columbia and an insurance firm in Colorado concluded large staffing programs. Hard-to-fill needs for service and semiskilled workers, on the other hand, registered overall gains. Stepped-up requirements for the semiskilled developed during the year as a pickup in aircraft exceeded declines in textile industry needs. An extensive search for policemen and firemen, largely by California and the District of Columbia, boosted clearance totals in the service category during most of 1963.

On balance, interarea recruitment through the Nation's employment security system was 11 percent lower in December 1963 than in the same month in 1962.

Seasonal Recruitment of Teachers

Professional and managerial openings advanced almost 20 percent between September and December 1963. A seasonal rise in listings for teachers nearly equalled the fourth-quarter increase of 1,700 openings for the total professional and managerial group. Total clearance needs for teachers reached almost 2,500 in December 1963—an over-the-year rise of 700. The stepup was administrative, rather than economic, as it resulted from the adoption of a unified hiring policy by U.S. military agencies with that portion of openings for teaching assignments overseas usually apearing in the early spring now listed in December.

The steady decline in demand for engineers reported since September 1962 abated during the final quarter of 1963. Total clearance openings for these specialists were virtually unchanged between September and December, remaining at a 5-year low of just over 2,600 openings. Electrical engineers, for whom hard-to-fill jobs contracted most sharply over the year, still headed the shortage list of engineering specialists. In December, nearly every third hard-to-fill engineering vacancy required an electrical or electronic specialist. Although clearance openings for electrical engineers were scattered over 37 States, almost 30 percent of these vacancies were in California in the ordnance, aircraft, and machinery industries. These same industries were the major source of demand for most of the other engineering specialties.

Interarea recruitment of natural scientists paralleled the demand pattern for engineers. The number of clearance openings for chemists, physicists, and mathematicians changed little over the quarter. While demand for chemists was scattered over 30 States, half of the hard-to-fill openings for physicists and mathematicians were located

in Federal facilities in the Nation's Capital and in the ordnance industry in California.

Total manpower needs for personnel working in support of scientists and engineers edged up over the quarter to about 1,100 openings, over half of which represented needs for draftsmen. Added requirements for draftsmen were evident in missile and spacecraft facilities in Alabama, construction activity in Texas, and manufacturing establishments in Wisconsin, and they offset a drop in openings for cartographers at a Federal facility in Missouri. Federal laboratories in Alabama and the District of Columbia and aircraft plants in Kansas and Missouri continue to report openings for other technical occupations.

Clearance openings for most of the other professional occupations shifted little between September and December, although reduced needs by the Federal Government resulted in fewer openings for veterinarians, economists, and translators.

The shortage of workers in the health occupations continued to be reflected in clearance openings. The need for practical nurses again rose nearly 25 percent to more than 400 openings over the quarter with the most significant increases in demand in Illinois and California. Interarea recruitment for nurses remained high, again reaching nearly 1,300 in December.

Expanded Demand for Skilled and Semiskilled

Aggregate demand for skilled and semiskilled workers changed little over the year but registered mild gains at year's end. However, sizable changes in the needs for several skilled and semiskilled specialties occurred as manpower requirements in the aircraft, electronics, and textile industries shifted. Over the year, aircraft firms in Alabama, Missouri, and Washington, and flying fields in Oklahoma, stepped up the demand for airplane mechanics as well as for both skilled and semiskilled production workers. The most significant increase in nationwide clearance needs for aircraft workers reflected staffing requirements for semiskilled riveters and assemblers in

Nonagricultural Inventory of Job Openings by State and Occupational Groups 1/ December 1963

State	Total	Professional and managerial	Clerical and sales	Service	Skilled	Semiskilled
U.S.	21,093	10,964	2,224	1,448	4,796	1,624
Ala.	292	187	0	0	105	0
Alaska	57	36	1	0	8	8
Ariz.	454	100	29	4	284	35
Ark.	38	23	0	3	10	2
Calif.	3,003	1,761	349	430	333	130
Colo.	152	64	1	2	82	3
Conn.	759	278	34	22	379	46
Del.	51	45	0	2	4	0
D.C.	4,173	2,966	870	297	33	7
Fla.	351	200	20	0	127	4
Ga.	244	110	55	1	47	31
Hawaii	9	9	0	0	0	0
Idaho	36	11	3	20	2	0
Ill.	956	354	87	102	234	178
Ind.	346	207	5	2	126	6
Iowa	400	144	45	65	126	20
Kans.	345	210	3	0	132	0
Ky.	81	46	11	0	21	3
La.	100	38	0	0	55	7
Maine	53	10	0	0	43	0
Md.	226	102	0	0	99	25
Mass.	512	174	14	23	233	68
Mich.	377	131	45	2	142	57
Minn.	440	117	134	89	67	30
Miss.	178	94	5	20	43	16
Mo.	1,286	530	33	33	256	434
Mont.	26	9	1	1	13	2
Nebr.	79	34	19	2	23	1
Nev.	158	49	55	52	2	0
N.H.	100	36	1	0	43	16
N.J.	509	357	2	24	106	20
N.Mex.	177	55	20	71	19	10
N.Y.	462	394	1	2	63	2
N.C.	374	138	41	0	161	34
N.Dak.	62	11	14	25	11	1
Ohio	541	323	52	0	154	12
Okla.	273	70	32	2	169	0
Oreg.	47	7	4	0	16	10
Pa.	600	386	5	27	163	19
R.I.	189	17	6	7	82	76
S.C.	10	2	0	0	7	1
S.Dak.	51	20	0	8	16	7
Tenn.	16	7	0	3	6	0
Tex.	196	116	4	14	59	3
Utah	91	73	1	0	1	16
Vt.	116	32	6	7	71	0
Va.	460	114	65	34	143	104
Wash.	1,103	543	122	27	334	67
W.Va.	72	38	1	2	31	0
Wis.	412	167	6	22	104	113
Wyo.	50	19	22	1	8	0

1/ Job openings for unskilled workers totaled 37 and were distributed as follows: Alaska 4, Arizona 2, Illinois 1, Minnesota 3, New Hampshire 4, New Mexico 2, Oregon 10, Rhode Island 1, and Washington 10.

Nonagricultural Job Openings on State Inventories by Selected Occupational Fields

Occupation	Number of openings			Percent change from:	
	Dec. 1963	Sept. 1963	Dec. 1962	Sept. 1963	Dec. 1962
Total	21,093	19,621	23,706	+7.5	-11.0
Professional and managerial	10,964	9,276	13,469	+18.2	-18.6
Engineers	2,634	2,638	4,600	-0.2	-42.7
Social and welfare workers	676	724	777	-6.6	-13.0
Teachers	2,468	848	1,795	+191.0	+37.5
Trained nurses	1,284	1,260	1,331	+1.9	-3.5
Natural scientists	471	424	615	+11.1	-23.4
Draftsmen, technicians, engineering and physical	717	622	1,243	+15.3	-42.3
Healers and medical service occupations, n.e.c.	430	351	251	+22.5	+71.3
Clerical and sales	2,224	2,445	2,880	-9.0	-22.8
Stenographers and typists	1,520	1,463	1,904	+3.9	-20.2
Service	1,448	1,494	1,173	-3.1	+23.4
Firemen, policemen and detectives, public service	825	786	369	+5.0	+123.6
Skilled	4,796	4,850	4,691	-1.1	+2.2
Metal workers	1,260	1,282	1,502	-1.7	-16.1
Mechanics and repairmen	1,015	1,228	1,164	-17.3	-12.8
Semiskilled	1,624	1,473	1,418	+10.3	+14.5

n.e.c.--Not elsewhere classified.

Area Classification

Sir: As a small business interested in bidding on certain government contracts, we will need continuously up-to-date information regarding classification of the Northport, New York, area as a "Labor Surplus Area."

James L. Hyde,
General Manager, Charter Laboratories, Northport, Long Island, N.Y.

Your name has been added to the mailing list for the monthly bulletin, Area Labor Market Trends.

Although firms in areas of moderate unemployment (Group C), such as New York City, which includes Northport, are not eligible on the basis of their location for preference in bidding on Federal contracts, they may nevertheless qualify for such preference by agreeing to buy a substantial proportion of the goods or services involved in fulfilling the contract from firms in areas of substantial unemployment. The Federal procurement offices with which you are dealing, or expect to deal, can provide further information on this point.

GATB

Sir: We are presently using the GATB at the South Carolina State Hospital in a Vocational Rehabilitation Evaluation center. Our overall experience has been that scores usually are lower on the GATB than on other tests. Many patients do not qualify for any occupational aptitude patterns. In many instances the disqualification is due to low scores on the manual dexterity scales. The following two aptitude profiles may give you some insight into our situation.

	G	V	N	S	P	Q	K	F	M
I.	79	82	92	78	91	97	91	57	44
II.	95	100	94	97	75	97	70	39	55

The first profile is that of a 17-year-old depressive-psychotic and the second is that of a 21-year-old schizophrenic. Your comments would be appreciated and also any reference material which you might have on the use of the GATB with mental patients would be appreciated . . .

Dr. William A. Floyd
Director, The Guidance Center
Columbia College, Columbia, S.C.

In 1950 some research was done at Maudsley Hospital in London, England. Personnel at that hospital administered employment service dexterity tests to 50 neurotics, 50 psychotics, and a control group of 50 psychiatrists and psychologists. The results showed differentiation among these three groups, with the control group having the highest mean scores, the neurotics significantly lower mean scores, and the psychotics the lowest mean scores. The average aptitude score for psychotics was 40 for finger dexterity and 62 for manual dexterity, score levels similar to those in the profiles you show in your letter.

No material relating specifically to use of the GATB with mental patients is available.

Missouri; needs rose from near zero a year ago to 400 in December.

Shifting requirements in the electronics and textile industries relaxed local shortages of some skilled and semiskilled workers. Clearance openings for electronic technicians fell by half to 230, reflecting reduced demand in communication equipment firms in California and Maryland, and at a Federal facility in Ohio. Fewer needs for semiskilled workers by textile firms in Alabama, Florida, and Massachusetts easily offset late-in-the-year increases in demand by textile, clothing, and apparel manufacturers in California, Missouri, Virginia and Wisconsin. Significant changes over the year also occurred in demand levels for other skilled workers. Clearance openings for machinists, which fell by 40 percent to 450 openings, resulted from declining needs for these workers in Alabama, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, and New Jersey. By contrast, clearance openings for electricians doubled over the year to nearly 250, with the largest need in the shipbuilding industry in Connecticut.

Skilled Openings Steady, Semiskilled Rise

Clearance needs for skilled workers totaled 4,800 openings in December. With few exceptions, demand for the various skilled specialties changed little over the quarter, and in most cases, these gains or declines were scattered among the States.

Interarea recruitment of semiskilled workers rose 10 percent above September, mainly as a result of increased demand in aircraft, apparel, and textiles. Nationwide clearance needs for riveters and assemblers in aircraft plants grew by more than 70 percent over the quarter and comprised nearly one-fourth of the 1,600 hard-to-fill openings for semiskilled workers.

Reduced Demand for Sales Personnel

Total clearance openings for clerical and sales workers dropped 9 percent over the quarter as recruitment of ticket agents and hosiery salesmen in North Carolina fell off. Except for moderate increases in openings for stenographers and typists in California, demand for most other clerical and sales personnel changed little from September levels.

Demand in the service occupations was also little changed over the quarter. However, clearance needs for police and firefighting personnel remain high, constituting over half of all openings for service workers.

Half of Clearance Placements Are in Four States

A total of 46,300 nonagricultural clearance placements were made in all States during the 3-month period, September through November 1963, compared with 46,700 placements during the previous 3 months and 46,500 in September–November 1962.

California's total of 11,400 clearance placements was the highest in the Nation, followed by New York (4,500), Pennsylvania (4,100), and Maryland (3,700). These four leading States made up slightly more than half of all nonagricultural clearance placements. Seven other States also reported clearance placements of 1,000 or more: Illinois (3,100), Texas (2,400), New Jersey (1,600), Wisconsin (1,600), Michigan (1,500), Georgia (1,000), and Massachusetts (1,000).

es newsletter

YOUTH PROGRAM

Plans for the Department of Labor Manpower Program for Youth are moving forward. On January 13, 1964, Secretary Wirtz issued an order outlining the delegation of authority and assignment of responsibilities.

The State Employment Services figure strongly in the operational aspects of the new program. As stated in the Secretary's Order, they have responsibility for "testing, counseling, and guiding youth as needed from the time they enter the labor market or leave school until they successfully adjust to suitable full-time employment." This involves a wide variety of services designed to assist young workers, including the disadvantaged and school dropouts, to achieve employability, choose suitable careers, and find jobs.

FARM LABOR CONFERENCE

The National Farm Labor Conference, held at Tucson, Ariz., February 10-12, drew an attendance of nearly 400. Grower, food processor, and labor association representatives from 22 States made up almost 40 percent of the conference group. In addition to State agency and BES officials, representatives from other government agencies, labor and welfare groups, and universities and churches participated.

The meetings of the Interstate Conference Farm Placement Committee, held on February 9, 11, and 13 gave much attention to migratory farm labor problems and programs, and the impact of the scheduled termination of P. L. 78 at the close of 1964. Because of this forthcoming cutoff of foreign labor, the committee urged that BES request additional funds for State administrative costs to meet the need for an expanded domestic farm labor program.

The committee could foresee no major changes in current migratory labor movements, despite the fact that the termination of P. L. 78 is certain to trigger increased competition for domestic migrants. The supply States would continue to deal with demand States whose employers have offered satisfactory employment in the past. However, in order to meet additional labor demand, it will be necessary to recruit new groups who previously have not been a

part of the migratory work force. In doing this, the committee agreed that there is need to improve labor market information and communication concerning worker availability, to analyze potential labor supplies, and to provide more adequate information about job conditions for interstate recruitment purposes.

Since mechanization and technological advances are bringing rapid changes in demands for farm labor, the committee urged that the Bureau of Employment Security increase efforts to devise an early warning system to aid in more intelligent planning.

EQUAL OPPORTUNITY

To establish better communications between predominately Negro colleges and the State employment service offices, ES representatives will visit the colleges to acquaint students and graduates with the guidance and placement opportunities available through the local offices.

NON-QUALIFIED SELECTIVE SERVICE REGISTRANTS

An important program, launched on February 17, will provide services to young men who failed to meet the educational achievement standards for induction into the Armed Forces. Present arrangements with Selective Service call for local boards to send letters to educationally deficient registrants who are not fully employed in permanent jobs, urging them to report to the public employment service offices. Most of these registrants will require intensive interviewing, counseling, testing, and job development. Local offices will also utilize all training possibilities and will seek out and use every community organization that may be able to provide needed services.

Under present plans, the number to be served during the balance of this fiscal year will be relatively small in most States. However, the volume is expected to increase appreciably after July 1, 1964, when Selective Service lowers the age level for pre-induction examinations. The younger group, estimated at about 3 million, will be phased into the program if adequate funds become available.

FOREIGN INTEREST

Interest in the United States public employment service continues to grow in other countries. The June 1963 edition of the Employment Security Review will be translated into Spanish and distributed to Latin American countries. Permission to do this was granted to the Agency for International Development by BES Administrator Robert C. Goodwin. The particular issue commemorates the 30th anniversary of the public employment service and traces its history and development over the years.

CHANGING COMMUNITIES

Pockets of Unemployment Are Widespread

In his economic message to Congress, the President focused attention dramatically on one of the most challenging economic and social problems of our times—the persistence of poverty in the midst of plenty. One-fifth of the Nation's families are living in substandard conditions at a time of unprecedented high economic activity. The President made particular reference to families headed by persons 65 years of age or older and families without a breadwinner. The disabled, the migratory farmworkers, unskilled and casual workers, and members of minority groups also comprise large segments of the low-income population. An important factor associated with low-income is persistent unemployment and lack of job opportunities in many of the Nation's labor market areas.

The administration's plans for combating poverty call for a coordinated approach through strengthening and extending social security and welfare programs, expanding occupational training programs, enlarging job opportunities for youth, stepping up urban renewal and public health activities. Of particular significance are plans to stimulate economic growth and provide more employment opportunities through national measures, such as tax reduction, but emphasis is also given to regional and local area redevelopment programs.

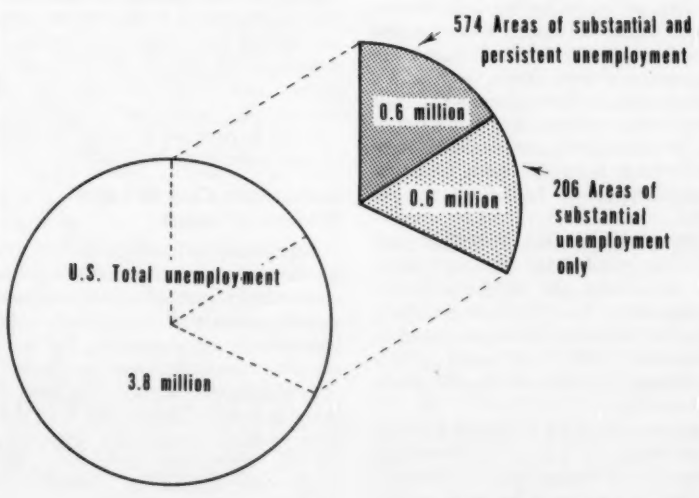
In a comprehensive program that gets to the roots of the problem of poverty in the United States, recognition must be given to the fact that here are geographic concentrations of unemployment directly linked with concentrations of low-income families. These are found in areas bypassed by economic progress. Of the 3.8 million unemployed in the United States at the end of 1963, 1.2 million lived in areas experiencing substantial unemployment; 600,000 of these were found in chronic labor surplus areas. Programs designed to stimulate economic activity and employment in areas of high unemployment—such as those providing for preference in awarding government contracts, assistance under the Area Redevelopment Act, accelerated public works programs, manpower training, and other means—would be a key element in an overall attack on poverty.

Areas of high unemployment remain widespread throughout the country, according to recent surveys of labor market conditions condutced by the Bureau of Employment Security and its affiliated State employment security agencies. The January 1964 classifications of areas according to relative adequacy of labor supply list 780 labor market areas in 44 States and Puerto Rico with high unemployment. Accounting for only about one-fifth of the working population in the country, these areas contained nearly one-third of all unemployed workers.

Over half of these unemployed persons in January 1964 were in the 574 areas throughout the country where unemployment has been a persistent problem over most of the past few years. In these areas, unemployment rates have been significantly higher than the national average for some time—in most instances, at least 50 percent higher for 3 of the past 4 years. On the average, approximately 1 in every 12 workers in these depressed areas was unemployed at the close of 1963 compared with about 1 out of every 19 nationwide.

The depressed areas differ in a number of respects, however, as to their size and complexity, the magnitude of the unemployment problem, and their potential for possible remedial actions to alleviate localized joblessness.

Substantial Unemployment in 780 Areas, December 1963



Source: U.S. Department of Labor

MAJOR LABOR MARKET AREAS EXPERIENCING SUBSTANTIAL AND PERSISTENT UNEMPLOYMENT

State and Area	DECEMBER 1963						Annual Average Unemployment Rates 1/			
	Total Work Force	Unemployment	Unemployment Rate 1/	Nonag. Wage & Salary Employment	Mfg. Employment	Mfg. as Percent of Nonag. W & S Employment	1960	1961	1962	1963
	(THOUSANDS)		(PERCENT)	(THOUSANDS)		(PERCENT)	(PERCENT)			
Massachusetts										
Fall River	56.5	6.0	10.6	42.9	22.6	52.7	9.0	9.3	9.4	10.1
Lowell	52.7	4.4	8.4	43.7	19.2	43.9	8.6	9.2	8.0	8.5
New Bedford	63.1	5.2	8.2	50.8	26.2	51.6	8.9	9.8	7.9	8.1
Minnesota										
Duluth-Superior	62.1	5.0	8.1	48.2	8.9	18.5	8.2	9.6	9.1	7.7
New Jersey										
Atlantic City	69.0	8.2	11.9	47.0	8.6	18.3	8.9	9.2	8.2	8.5
Pennsylvania										
Altoona	52.8	5.1	9.7	42.1	11.6	27.6	10.3	12.0	10.5	9.9
Erie	97.5	7.2	7.4	78.6	35.8	45.5	9.5	10.4	7.6	7.3
Johnstown	87.6	7.7	8.8	68.1	23.1	33.9	13.0	17.9	14.5	10.2
Pittsburgh	922.4	65.3	7.1	764.3	267.0	34.9	9.3	11.0	9.4	7.9
Scranton	97.8	11.1	11.3	76.1	30.5	40.1	12.6	13.2	11.5	11.3
Wilkes-Barre--Hazleton	134.8	14.9	11.1	105.7	42.2	39.9	12.9	13.1	10.4	10.0
Puerto Rico										
Mayaguez	29.1	4.2	14.4	18.5	7.9	42.7	11.5	12.4	13.2	14.8
Ponce	42.3	6.3	14.9	25.6	8.3	32.4	11.7	11.6	13.3	15.1
Rhode Island										
Providence-Pawtucket	364.3	23.2	6.4	307.2	129.6	42.2	7.0	7.3	6.6	6.8
West Virginia										
Charleston	94.0	6.6	7.0	77.6	22.9	29.5	7.4	8.5	7.0	6.8
Huntington-Ashland	90.6	7.9	8.7	70.4	23.8	33.8	12.0	12.1	10.3	8.6
Wheeling	66.8	6.5	9.7	50.2	15.8	31.5	13.9	15.3	12.1	10.3

1/ Unemployment as a percent of work force.

Source: Bureau of Employment Security.

Persistent Unemployment in Major Metropolitan Centers

Of the 574 areas with persistent unemployment, 17 are major metropolitan areas, including 2 in Puerto Rico. The 15 major areas on the mainland of the United States are concentrated in 6 States, 5 of which are located in the eastern section of the Nation. Three States—Pennsylvania with 6 areas and Massachusetts and West Virginia with 3 areas each—accounted for 12 of the 15 areas.

Of the more than 2 million nonfarm wage and salary workers—about 3.5 percent of the Nation's total—employed in the 15 major mainland areas of persistent unemployment in December 1963, half were in the Pittsburgh and Providence-Pawtucket areas.

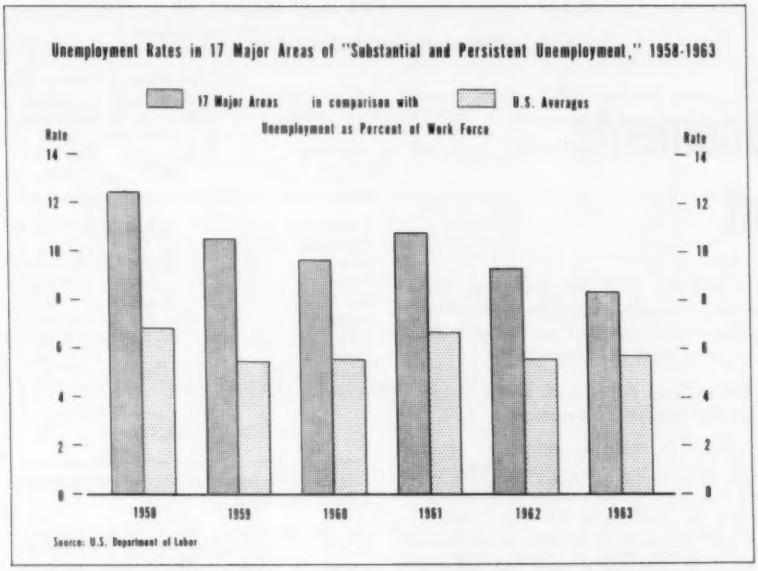
Above-average unemployment rates in these major metropolitan centers have several causes. The dependence on one or two dominant but declining manufacturing industries (textiles, steel, machinery, railroad equipment) as the major source of employment has contributed largely to unemployment in the areas. Other factors are the permanent closing of obsolete plants and the transfer of important industries to other sections of the Nation, depletion or exhaustion of natural resources, automation and other technological advances in production techniques, changes in product demand, and lack of adequate industrialization.

Cutbacks in Coal and Steel Producing Centers

Advancing technology in steel production, foreign competition, and competition from substitute products, notably aluminum and plastics, are the prime contributors to the long-standing unemployment problem in the Pittsburgh area. Declines in other industries during the past decade—notably machinery, fabricated metals, extractive industries, and trade—also added to overall area joblessness.

In anthracite mining areas such as Scranton and Wilkes-Barre—Hazleton, Pa., sharp employment cutbacks were caused primarily by declining consumer demand for coal for home-heating purposes. In addition, growing mechanization in mining has materially increased the number of jobless workers in such bituminous coal areas as Johnstown, Pa., and Charleston, W. Va.

The decline in jobs in the Huntington-Ashland area, unlike most other areas in West Virginia, is attributable not to cutbacks in coal mining but to shutdowns of electrical machinery, furniture, and cigar manufacturing plants and reductions in transportation-utilities during the past few years. In Wheeling, job opportunities were greatly diminished by mechanization of mine operations and declines in fabricated metals (plant closures) and in steel, due to improved production methods and competition from foreign producers and from the aluminum industry. Losses in railroad employment (transfer of a major railroad's terminal facilities out of the area) also contrib-



uted to the area's persistent unemployment problem.

In the two large Pennsylvania centers of Altoona and Erie, persistent unemployment is not specifically tied to the declining coal mining industry or to developments in steel.

The Altoona economy has long been intertwined with the railroad industry. Dieselization of engines and equipment and competition from other modes of transportation have cut deeply the number of jobs in the manufacture and maintenance of locomotives and other railroad equipment. Some new employment sources have resulted from local efforts to attract industries to the area, but these new industries employ mostly women. As a result, unemployment of men in Altoona remains disproportionately higher than among women.

Erie has a heavy concentration of employment in durable goods production. The loss of a major refrigeration equipment plant a few years ago affected some 10,000 workers, triggering the rise in local unemployment to higher than national average rates. Additional declines in job opportunities in Erie resulted from technological advances in production methods in some industries and shutdowns of several smaller firms.

Shifts in Textile Industry Reduce Area Jobs

In the New England cotton textile centers of Fall River, Lowell and New Bedford, Mass., substitution of synthetic fibers and relocation of major mills to other regions contributed to the higher-than-average unemployment rates in these areas. Some new light industries, producing mainly electrical machinery and electronic equipment, plastics, and apparel, have located in these areas in the past few years. These new industries rely to a large extent on the female labor supply, however, and do not provide sufficient jobs for men.

Providence-Pawtucket has also been a victim of the exodus of the textile industry from that section of the country. In this center, losses in hard goods industries—machinery, machine tools, jewelry-silverware—have also contributed to continuing high unemployment levels, particularly among males.

Atlantic City, subject to wide fluctuations in employment due to its dependence on resort and agricultural activities, has had a high unemployment problem during most of the past 20 years. Except in apparel, no significant number of factory jobs providing year-round employment are available in the area.

In addition to sharp seasonal fluctuations and lack of year-round jobs, decreased demand for manpower in the Duluth-Superior area and other Great Lakes ports has resulted from the gradual decline in iron ore shipments from this region and the introduction over the past few years of larger and faster ships. Mechanization of grain elevators and significant cutbacks in the manufacture of steel and transportation equipment have also contributed to the persistent unemployment problem in this area.

The two major areas of Mayaguez and Ponce in Puerto Rico still classified by the Bureau as areas of persistent unemployment have fairly similar economic structures: a concentration of employment in industries with widely fluctuating seasonal paterns—apparel, tuna canning, and sugar growing and refining. The lack of year-round jobs and the inadequate growth of new local job opportunities to absorb the rising working population have been the principal factors in the continuing unemployment problem.

Unemployment in Smaller Centers

Most of the 574 labor market areas classified as having substantial and persistent unemployment in January 1964 were relatively smaller in size. Some 460 have a work force of fewer than 15,000; another 97 areas have more than 15,000 workers but are not considered major employment centers. At least one or more smaller areas are found in 44 States and in Puerto Rico. A large share are in States in the Appalachian Region of the Nation such as Kentucky, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Tennessee, and parts of southern Illinois which have been hard hit by the decline in coal mining production and the mechanization of mines operations. Outside of coal mining regions, the major causes of joblessness are the decline in the agricultural work force due to increased farm mechanization and lack of adequate industrialization which might provide year-round job opportunities.

—Fernand P. Guay, U.S. Employment Service

TRAINING

Graduates and Placements Under MDTA Mount

Training completions and placements under the MDTA program accelerated in the last half of 1963. Nearly 25,000 persons had completed institutional training courses from the time the program began. By the end of January 1964, some 70.5 percent of the graduates had found employment—about 90 percent of them in training-related jobs. Local offices of State employment services, continuing in a key role, made close to three-fourths of the placements (table 1).

Most Placements in 10 States

With more than 500 placements each, 10 States accounted for about 60 percent of the employed graduates. While about 70 percent of those completing training in the 10 States have obtained employment (table 2), placement rates ranged from 62 percent in New York to over 80 percent in Connecticut, Maine, and Michigan. Some of the States with smaller programs, such as Arizona, Delaware, Hawaii, Montana, North Carolina, and Oregon, report employment rates of over 90 percent.

Education, Age, and Sex as Factors in Placement

MDTA training seems to reduce effectively the placement difficulties of trainees with educational deficiencies, as indicated by the relatively small differences in the employment rates of graduates with varying educational attainment. Trainees who have not gone beyond the 8th grade have been about as successful in finding jobs after training as those with considerably more schooling. This is due, probably, to the fact that they obtain employment in the service occupations, where the rate of placements of MDTA graduates is among the highest (table 3).

Age, more than educational attainment, appears to affect trainee employment rates. Trainees over 44 years of age continue to encounter more difficulty in obtaining employment than those in the younger age categories. For all age groups, however, completion of MDTA training had a marked effect in increasing employability (table 4).

Women MDTA graduates faired less well in obtaining employment than men in every age group. While 75 percent of the men have found jobs, this compares with a little over 60 percent of the women.

TABLE 1.—*Employment Status of and ES Placement Activities for MDTA Graduates*

Employment status and ES placement activities	Trainees	
	Number	Percent
I. *Completed Training* (through Nov. 30, 1963)	24, 343	100. 0
A. Obtained employment	17, 171	70. 5
1. Training-related	15, 346	63. 0
2. Nontraining-related	1, 825	7. 5
B. Referred for employment, awaiting referral, or other (including status unknown)	7, 172	29. 5
II. *Employment Service Placement Activity* (through Jan. 24, 1964): A. Obtained employment	17, 171	100. 0
B. Placed by Employment Service	12, 761	74. 3
C. Other	4, 401	25. 7

Source: State employment security agencies.

TABLE 2.—*Placement of MDTA Graduates in Selected States*

State	Number completing training as of Nov. 30, 1963	Percent of graduates employed as of Jan. 24, 1964
California	2, 526	67. 9
Connecticut	1, 736	81. 2
Illinois	2, 016	63. 3
Maine	673	81. 0
Michigan	1, 442	81. 6
Missouri	839	71. 4
New York	1, 746	62. 2
Ohio	1, 127	70. 7
Pennsylvania	1, 706	65. 3
Washington	1, 002	76. 0
Total	14, 813	70. 7

Source: Reports of State employment security agencies.

Hard-Core Unemployed Have More Placement Problems

Even after training, the long-term unemployed encounter more problems in finding employment than those with shorter spans of joblessness. This is particularly evident among men, where 80 percent of those unemployed 5 weeks or less have obtained employment, compared with about 60 percent of those unemployed for a year or more before entering training (table 5.) Nevertheless, it is significant that MDTA training enables three-fifths of the long-term jobless to return to gainful employment within a short time after completion.

Trainees in Skilled and Semiskilled Trades Obtain Most Jobs

Of the persons who completed MDTA courses by September 30,

TABLE 3.—*Educational Attainment of MDTA Graduates and Placement Rates, by Sex*

[For project sections completed through Sept. 30, 1963]

Educational attainment of graduates	Percent distribution of graduates through Sept. 30, 1963	Percent distribution of graduates employed	Employment rates		
			Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	69.1	75.1	62.7
Less than 8th grade	2.6	2.5	67.8	70.1	63.0
8th grade	7.8	7.9	70.8	73.2	67.1
6th to 11th grade	31.1	30.9	68.7	74.4	62.4
12th grade	50.4	50.7	69.4	76.8	62.2
Over 12th grade	8.2	8.0	67.3	73.1	62.8

Source: State employment security agencies.

TABLE 4.—*MDTA Graduates Employed by Age Group*

[For project sections completed through Sept. 30, 1963]

Age	Employment rates (percent of completions)		
	Total	Male	Female
Total	69.1	75.1	62.7
Under 19 years	74.0	83.8	64.7
19 to 21 years	70.2	76.3	63.5
22 to 34 years	69.7	75.7	60.9
35 to 44 years	67.5	71.7	64.2
45 years and over	65.1	69.6	61.8

Source: State employment security agencies.

1963, nearly 60 percent had been trained in skilled and semiskilled trades, over 20 percent in clerical and sales occupations, and about 14 percent in the service group. Less than 5 percent were trained for professional or agricultural occupations.

Graduates in the skilled and semiskilled occupational categories were generally most successful in obtaining jobs. In contrast, trainees in clerical and sales occupations had relatively least success (table 6).

Of those completing training for skilled jobs, about 75 percent soon found employment. Placement rates were particularly high for boot and shoe workers (95 percent), combination welders (86 percent), and arc welders (80 percent). About 70 percent of the persons trained as automobile mechanics and repairmen also found employment.

In the semiskilled category, the most sizable employment rates were for automobile-service station attendants (80 percent), general machine operators (79 percent), and subassemblers (77 percent). Nearly 90 percent of the chambermaid trainees and 75 percent of those trained in the waiter-waitress and cook categories found service jobs in line with their training. Of the trainees who completed courses in clerical and sales occupations, about 60 percent have obtained employment, with the largest number of placements among clerk-typists and stenographers.

TABLE 5.—*Employment Rates of MDTA Graduates, by Duration of Previous Unemployment*

[For project sections completed through Sept. 30, 1963]

Duration of unemployment	Employment rates of MDTA graduates		
	Total	Male	Female
Total[1]	68.5	74.4	62.5
Under 5 weeks	75.2	80.3	68.0
5 to 14 weeks	72.9	77.2	65.8
15 to 26 weeks	67.4	70.6	63.3
27 to 52 weeks	64.6	69.4	60.5
Over 52 weeks	58.9	62.5	57.5

[1] Duration data exclude underemployed and family farmworker trainees.

Source: State employment security agencies.

TABLE 6. *MDTA Training Completions and Placement Rates, by Major Occupational Group*

Major occupational group	Completed training through Sept. 30, 1963		Graduates employed by Nov. 15, 1963	
	Number	Percent	Number	Placement rate
Total	16,818	100.0	11,624	.....
Professional and managerial	356	2.1	238	66.9
Clerical and sales	3,827	22.8	2,307	60.4
Service	2,449	14.6	1,727	70.5
Skilled	4,144	24.6	3,142	75.8
Semiskilled	5,705	33.9	3,912	68.5
Agricultural and related occupations	337	2.0	298	82.8

Source: State employment security agencies.

YOUTH IN AGRICULTURE

(*Continued from page 27*)

With the groundwork already laid, placing youth in agriculture may be expected gradually to become easier. This work experience for young people offers an excellent preparation for tomorrow's farmers and agribusiness employers and provides a source of income to youth as encouragement to continue further education and training. At the same time, the program is developing an abundant source of local labor to meet the seasonal needs of farm employers.

Farm Placements Continue Downtrend in 1963

Reflecting the continuing downtrend in seasonal farm jobs due to increased mechanization and related improvements in farming, agricultural placements declined nearly 15 percent from 1962 to 7,236,000 in 1963. The most recent year's total was about 26 percent below the 1959 high.

The day-haul program—closely dependent on the length of the work period for volume—bore the brunt of the placement decline. Day-haul placements dropped over 800,000 in 1963 from their 1962 level.

Placement declines were widespread, occurring in 41 States. However, over 70 percent of the drop was in the four cotton-producing States of Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas, where day-haul labor is heavily utilized and where advancing mechanization has been taking deeper bites annually into the number of harvesting jobs available. While cotton harvest mechanization in the South continues at a rapid pace, increased use of herbicides during the growing season also threatens to have the same effect on the availability of "chopping" jobs. In 1963, chemical cultivation combined with ideal weather to reduce peak labor needs for cotton "chopping" in Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas by an estimated 40 percent.

A variety of new machines and labor-saving devices made additional inroads into seasonal jobs in vegetable fields and fruit orchards, including plastic mulch—which is helping to solve the berry farmer's weed problems—and the expanding use of monogerm seed in sugar beet cultivation.

Farm Placements—Calendar Years 1954–63

[*thousands*]

Year	Total farm placement	Individual selection	Pool type (day-haul)	In crews	All other
1954	8,912	765	5,183	2,384	580
1955	8,906	835	4,970	2,465	636
1956	9,072	824	5,276	2,338	634
1957	8,569	868	4,823	2,236	642
1958	9,282	867	5,268	2,425	722
1959	9,758	851	5,749	2,448	710
1960	9,454	808	5,553	2,458	635
1961	8,806	829	5,074	2,302	601
1962	8,466	807	5,087	2,140	432
1963	7,236	742	4,263	1,775	456

January Placements Rise Seasonally

January nonfarm placements, at 442,500, were up 2.4 percent from December but were 3.6 percent below a year ago. The over-the-month gain was concentrated mainly in the manufacturing and service industries and in the semiskilled, service, and professional categories. After allowance for the longer work month and the seasonal low in January, the annual rate of placements was 6.2 million—unchanged from December. In January a year ago, the rate was 6.3 million.

Over the month, placements (unadjusted) more than held their own, despite a 1.7 million drop in nonfarm payroll employment to 56.9 million and a rise of 700,000 in unemployment to 4.6 million. The employment drop was about in line with the usual post-Christmas layoffs in retail trade and post offices and the curtailment of outdoor activities. Despite a 175,000 drop from December in factory employment to 17.0 million, placements in factory jobs, at 90,600 in January, rose 21 percent, mostly in apparel, electrical, and nonelectrical machinery industries.

Continuing the trend that has been evident during most of the past year, nonfarm placements have been below the previous year's level in all but 3 months of 1963. This January they were under both January 1963 and 1962 (3.6 percent and 4.8 percent, respectively), although higher than in the same month of all other years back to 1953. All occupational groups and industry divisions, except construction, were represented in the over-the-year decline. The major part of the decrease was among women (14,000 of the 17,000 drop), primarily in the 22 to 44 age group; there was also a 2,000 loss in the under 22 age category. Most of the placement drop among women occurred in clerical, sales, and service occupations in manufacturing, trade, and service industries. However, the number of women employed in nonagricultural industries increased slightly over the year in the under 45 age group.

January placements in the 55 largest metropolitan areas, at 238,100, were up 6 percent from December but, compared with a year ago, were down 2.4 percent.

State agencies made 148,872 agricultural placements in January, a 24 percent increase over the same month in 1963. Four States (Arizona, California, Florida, and Texas) accounted for 85 percent of the January placements. Delayed activity in winter fruits and vegetables is credited with the increase.

Table 1.--Selected Local Office Employment Security Activities, January 1964

State	Nonfarm Job Openings		Nonfarm Employer Contacts		New Applications 3/		Counseling Interviews		Placements					
										Nonagricultural				
	Total available openings 1/	Percentage change from Jan. '63	Total (except mail)	Percentage change from Jan. '63 2/	Number	Percentage change from Jan. '63	Total	Percentage change from Jan. '63 2/	Agricultural	Number	Percentage change from Jan. '63	Persons under 22 years	Persons 45 years and over	Veterans 4/
Total	761,292	-0.8	97,901	-17.1	1,037,111	-5.4	181,230	-5.6	148,872	442,542	-3.6	93,959	92,678	71,607
Alabama	11,681	2.6	2,565	-2.0	14,326	-5.8	1,584	-18.6	176	6,934	-.7	1,621	989	704
Alaska	977	-35.9	226	-12.1	1,599	13.5	326	49.5	0	457	-23.2	109	66	60
Arizona	11,150	-4.4	1,450	-9.3	12,401	.5	2,104	26.8	7,117	7,312	-15.2	1,239	1,412	1,438
Arkansas	8,668	13.1	1,380	.5	16,346	-3.1	2,491	.8	609	6,840	10.0	1,762	1,338	1,029
California	91,660	-3.8	13,098	3.6	136,783	-3.2	18,577	-1.2	10,137	52,391	-6.1	15,954	10,816	9,963
Colorado	8,010	-6.7	807	-34.6	12,615	-4.6	2,412	-1.3	831	4,998	-5.8	1,165	853	1,292
Connecticut	15,927	3.8	995	-45.7	18,816	6.2	3,316	19.0	58	6,885	-22.7	1,524	1,235	858
Delaware	1,173	-6.3	238	36.0	1,940	1.7	246	-60.6	3	475	-10.0	55	84	72
Dist. of Col.	10,868	-6.6	593	-49.1	6,623	-13.5	2,209	.3	0	4,342	-2.6	592	605	534
Florida	34,249	12.6	2,869	-34.9	23,185	-5.4	2,759	-.93	19,783	23,054	.65	4,682	4,597	3,775
Georgia	15,738	6.7	1,129	-29.2	17,941	-10.4	2,788	-14.2	331	11,085	3.5	2,820	1,495	1,231
Guam	1,852	-22.2	26	—	97	-32.2	0	—	0	58	-47.3	15	1	5
Hawaii	2,629	28.5	199	-55.9	4,343	25.9	546	12.3	131	1,000	-18.0	269	113	184
Idaho	2,290	6.9	621	-20.3	4,784	1.4	1,047	-3.7	137	1,592	-2.7	477	274	228
Illinois	31,436	18.3	4,353	83.7	40,296	-12.4	7,785	-2.6	304	14,603	-11.2	2,811	2,244	3,123
Indiana	13,763	8.1	2,365	-38.3	24,137	-1.7	3,182	22.2	46	6,732	10.4	1,758	1,087	1,068
Iowa	8,282	-1.4	2,294	10.2	9,424	12.1	1,972	-1.7	338	5,247	-8.0	1,475	1,050	1,102
Kansas	8,796	8.1	1,568	-13.5	10,526	-8.6	2,275	-4.8	232	5,001	-7.2	1,117	1,113	969
Kentucky	5,703	-9.6	393	-55.4	16,126	8.7	3,917	21.6	511	3,700	-17.7	955	894	661
Louisiana	9,842	12.1	1,575	-16.0	12,853	-19.3	1,857	-11.6	851	6,649	8.7	1,530	1,210	1,098
Maine	8,267	11.6	509	18.1	3,743	-15.4	1,992	14.0	13	1,981	-5.1	431	226	147
Maryland	10,246	13.5	1,128	-25.8	17,500	5.1	2,054	-5.2	349	5,925	10.0	1,073	1,137	795
Massachusetts	23,736	-10.7	2,842	-20.9	30,206	.2	5,938	-5.0	135	12,963	-5.4	2,612	2,440	2,118
Michigan	20,232	3.0	1,390	-44.1	53,353	-11.1	4,790	-28.0	119	11,842	-3.4	2,762	2,074	2,803
Minnesota	9,850	-.8	1,932	25.3	15,964	(5/)	1,771	-12.6	111	4,978	-13.6	1,256	1,161	1,105
Mississippi	9,767	-7.3	1,617	-21.2	14,704	-1.8	2,989	-12.8	1,924	6,644	-.85	1,541	957	630
Missouri	15,070	24.1	2,917	26.6	23,216	-1.9	4,394	17.8	151	7,653	15.8	2,079	1,317	1,806
Montana	2,023	-15.9	1,364	-10.2	4,050	-16.1	1,236	-24.1	264	1,391	-24.9	343	249	305
Nebraska	4,501	-15.2	1,382	-27.7	4,631	-10.4	1,446	-15.4	265	3,135	-23.8	743	718	814
Nevada	2,820	-18.0	398	-46.4	4,948	-.4	470	-29.4	155	1,813	-18.2	207	581	459
New Hampshire	2,799	15.4	316	-13.9	3,406	1.3	858	-12.9	3	907	-.97	239	184	108
New Jersey	22,408	1.3	2,131	-12.2	33,534	-4.8	3,782	-9.2	199	10,386	5.5	1,827	1,943	1,000
New Mexico	3,484	-10.5	754	-33.5	4,994	-16.9	891	4.0	335	2,599	-17.8	454	462	520
New York	105,035	-5.2	7,584	-18.6	89,480	-15.4	21,278	6.7	225	64,539	-5.4	8,128	19,798	7,528
North Carolina	14,413	-8.9	1,130	-45.8	23,691	.59	2,750	-18.3	4,713	8,139	-18.1	1,939	1,049	989
North Dakota	2,571	-10.4	366	-43.8	4,128	72.5	627	2.8	36	1,895	-11.6	492	182	179
Ohio	25,923	-3.8	1,986	-52.5	53,617	-9.4	7,055	-31.5	249	14,022	-17.9	3,067	3,379	3,846
Oklahoma	13,905	14.3	3,000	-25.5	13,577	-8.2	3,290	-7.5	149	10,985	16.8	1,591	2,990	2,977
Oregon	6,260	-9.7	1,705	-8.0	14,539	23.0	3,739	13.2	242	4,302	-7.1	1,196	873	821
Pennsylvania	30,913	5.4	6,378	-26.6	58,829	-7.2	14,972	-8.1	1,824	20,264	9.4	4,708	4,638	2,749
Puerto Rico	5,790	30.9	610	-36.6	12,430	1.4	2,333	-10.5	1,124	4,296	38.4	792	617	204
Rhode Island	4,039	-.4	1,055	-31.4	6,091	-2.9	1,439	6.9	0	2,103	-12.3	687	378	219
South Carolina	7,603	-8.5	929	-8.9	11,866	6.2	981	-11.4	2,297	4,819	-15.7	1,076	801	479
South Dakota	2,231	-7.2	532	3.9	3,018	-11.1	759	20.1	209	1,209	-8.3	279	286	326
Tennessee	10,278	-5.2	1,339	-21.5	14,922	4.8	1,893	-5.0	1,642	7,171	-4.6	1,764	970	1,072
Texas	52,325	11.2	7,558	-18.8	61,260	-11.0	10,198	-17.2	18,025	36,428	13.7	5,972	7,925	6,422
Utah	4,195	-35.7	923	-49.1	5,592	-18.1	1,636	-5.5	176	2,628	-38.7	597	451	651
Vermont	1,639	-12.0	167	-20.5	2,355	29.5	330	10.3	57	724	-17.3	200	117	86
Virginia	13,329	-1.9	1,148	-9.6	15,423	-7.7	3,117	-20.3	46	6,347	-3.7	1,263	873	560
Virgin Islands	2,136	15.5	30	—	163	-25.2	42	—	0	131	-13.8	43	13	4
Washington	12,291	8.7	1,897	-43.7	21,319	14.1	4,194	-2.8	273	5,146	2.9	1,137	1,115	1,312
West Virginia	3,707	-11.5	714	35.0	8,103	-5.0	2,171	2.0	21	2,726	-18.9	547	673	290
Wisconsin	12,127	-.11	2,004	6.4	17,052	-16.2	3,995	-11.9	76	4,362	-28.2	1,442	762	564
Wyoming	1,091	-11.7	422	-16.3	2,358	-18.0	427	14.5	77	640	-23.3	142	163	141

1/ Openings on hand at the beginning of month plus openings received during the month.
2/ Not computed if State volume for either period was under 50.
3/ Should not be interpreted as a measure of the total number of new job applications at Employment Service office, since there are some types of applicants for whom written applications are not taken.
4/ Includes veterans of all wars.
5/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 2.--Nonagricultural Placements, January 1964

STATE	INDUSTRY DIVISION							HANDICAPPED	WOMEN	SHORT-TIME
	TOTAL	CONSTRUCTION	MANUFACTURING	WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	SERVICE		ALL OTHER 1/			
					TOTAL	DOMESTIC				
TOTAL	442,542	23,076	90,569	107,880	174,432	95,046	46,585	19,296	206,673	143,855
ALABAMA	6,934	741	1,597	1,524	2,664	1,824	408	149	3,424	1,594
ALASKA	457	18	71	52	149	97	167	17	297	52
ARIZONA	7,312	333	703	1,923	3,603	1,758	750	376	3,450	1,821
ARKANSAS	6,840	747	1,460	1,734	2,187	1,342	712	311	2,825	2,401
CALIFORNIA	52,391	1,365	7,489	14,662	24,148	11,459	4,727	1,407	24,307	21,570
COLORADO	4,992	355	557	1,585	1,536	592	959	200	1,692	1,962
CONNECTICUT	6,285	224	1,817	1,494	2,177	1,156	573	365	2,763	1,412
DELAWARE	475	21	140	101	173	112	40	7	247	101
DIST OF COL	4,342	212	60	672	2,034	1,541	1,364	183	2,565	1,430
FLORIDA	23,054	2,149	2,769	6,145	9,766	4,625	2,225	888	11,020	4,444
GEORGIA	11,085	1,361	2,934	2,605	3,524	2,475	661	287	5,089	1,480
GUAM	58	42	5		6		5		3	
HAWAII	999	298	133	221	227	50	120	59	362	27
IDAHO	1,593	41	333	412	610	414	197	67	856	480
ILLINOIS	14,603	166	3,888	3,826	5,189	1,812	1,534	554	5,115	4,125
INDIANA	6,732	199	1,638	1,884	2,301	1,356	710	314	2,963	1,573
IOWA	5,247	276	1,149	1,812	1,370	485	640	351	2,119	1,738
KANSAS	5,001	427	874	1,317	1,415	790	968	243	2,113	1,855
KENTUCKY	3,700	129	1,086	887	1,048	574	550	127	1,745	617
LOUISIANA	6,649	621	603	2,326	2,245	1,424	854	219	2,742	2,039
MAINE	1,281	148	510	219	259	87	145	42	545	143
MARYLAND	5,925	577	1,381	1,178	2,373	1,395	416	98	3,045	958
MASSACHUSETTS	12,963	283	3,625	2,445	4,730	1,353	1,880	330	6,589	2,016
MICHIGAN	11,842	326	3,339	3,358	4,051	1,573	768	815	4,507	3,470
MINNESOTA	4,978	96	1,421	1,390	1,221	540	850	299	2,291	1,594
MISSISSIPPI	6,644	477	1,730	1,421	2,493	1,832	523	176	3,432	1,381
MISSOURI	7,653	167	2,422	1,989	2,180	891	895	275	3,037	2,042
MONTANA	1,391	60	187	383	484	177	277	64	613	372
NEBRASKA	3,135	345	780	876	580	226	554	341	897	1,175
NEVADA	1,813	69	89	357	1,088	530	210	55	850	780
NEW HAMPSHIRE	907	22	499	107	213	37	66	51	545	23
NEW JERSEY	10,386	258	3,007	1,496	4,774	3,220	851	357	5,928	2,903
NEW MEXICO	2,599	224	187	786	1,024	589	378	118	893	1,289
NEW YORK	64,539	735	13,402	9,215	37,143	22,336	4,044	3,149	39,144	29,697
NORTH CAROLINA	8,139	843	2,946	1,334	2,255	1,543	761	288	4,032	844
NORTH DAKOTA	1,295	74	61	391	468	249	301	79	604	370
OHIO	14,022	646	2,744	3,721	5,504	2,944	1,407	625	4,689	7,107
OKLAHOMA	10,985	1,193	1,016	3,287	3,866	1,815	1,623	866	3,353	6,244
OREGON	4,302	205	732	1,322	1,276	581	767	216	1,946	1,063
PENNSYLVANIA	20,264	532	5,555	6,174	6,675	3,728	1,328	1,688	9,726	7,674
PUERTO RICO	4,296	328	1,183	408	480	222	1,897	40	1,123	83
RHODE ISLAND	2,103	48	936	442	482	275	195	130	1,084	403
SOUTH CAROLINA	4,819	520	1,408	651	1,963	1,509	277	128	2,693	665
SOUTH DAKOTA	1,209	113	147	417	335	188	197	67	406	516
TENNESSEE	7,171	490	2,194	1,894	2,127	1,302	466	263	3,486	1,110
TEXAS	36,428	3,528	5,083	12,153	12,392	7,678	3,272	1,719	15,082	13,081
UTAH	2,628	108	399	624	869	342	628	168	1,109	841
VERMONT	724	37	168	161	298	140	68	39	358	107
VIRGINIA	6,347	635	1,180	1,440	2,510	1,600	582	165	3,073	1,305
VIRGIN ISLANDS	131	11	35	26	39	25	20		88	1
WASHINGTON	5,146	96	714	1,119	1,298	633	1,919	230	1,807	2,091
WEST VIRGINIA	2,726	54	376	636	1,357	1,044	303	63	1,667	930
WISCONSIN	4,362	63	1,779	1,056	1,038	417	426	202	2,104	549
WYOMING	840	40	36	222	215	119	127	26	230	307

1/ Includes forestry and fishing; mining; transportation, communication, and other public utilities; finance, insurance, and real estate; government; establishments not elsewhere classified.

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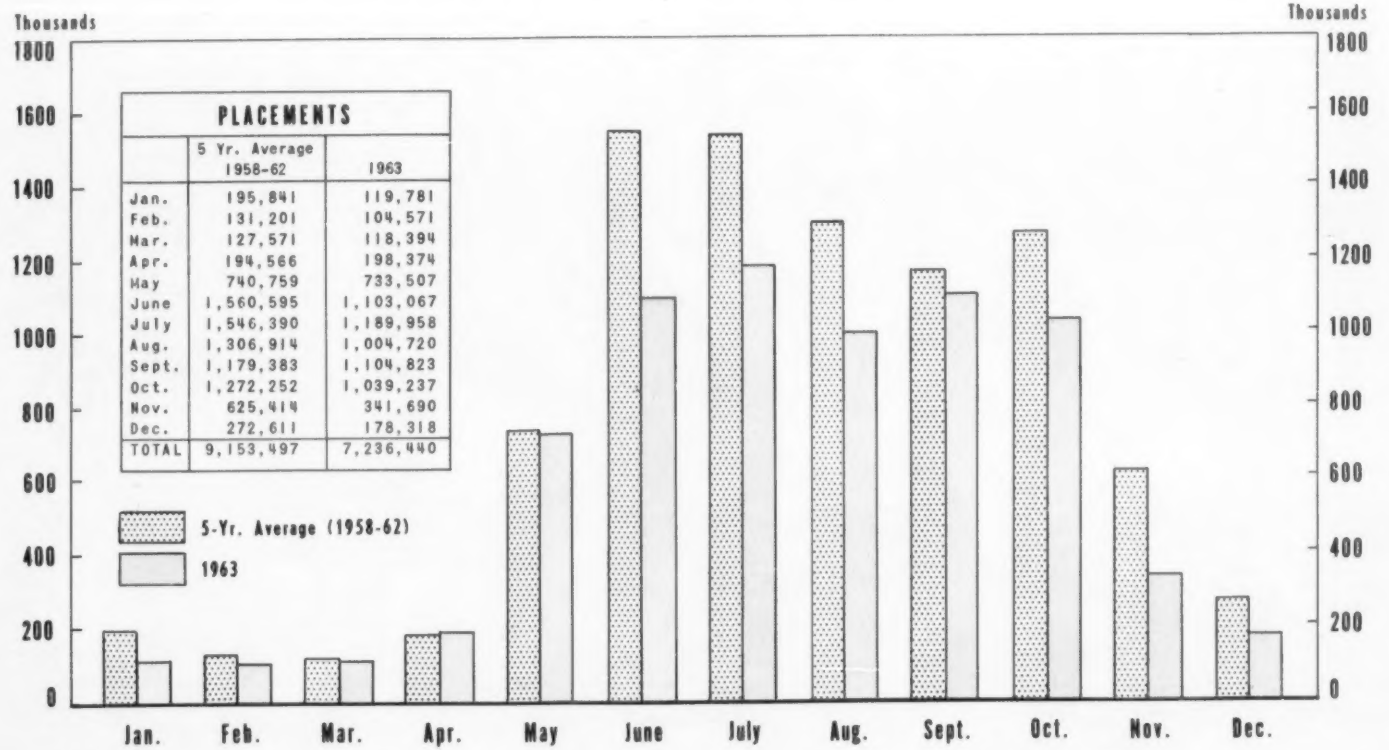
FARM PLACEMENTS BY MONTH

FIVE YEAR AVERAGE 1958-62 AND 1963



PLACEMENTS	5 Yr. Average 1958-62	1963
Jan.	195,841	119,781
Feb.	131,201	104,571
Mar.	127,571	118,394
Apr.	194,566	198,374
May	740,759	733,507
June	1,560,595	1,103,067
July	1,546,390	1,189,958
Aug.	1,306,914	1,004,720
Sept.	1,179,383	1,104,823
Oct.	1,272,252	1,039,237
Nov.	625,414	341,690
Dec.	272,611	178,318
TOTAL	9,153,497	7,236,440

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